U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

MONTHLY
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SPECIAL FEATURES IN THIS ISSUE

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This Issue in Brief

The productivity of labor in the steel, automobile, shoe, and paper industries has increased markedly in the last decade. The output per man in the automobile industry has more than doubled since pre-war days, while that in the steel and paper industries shows considerable increases. Even an industry like boots and shoes, which is to such a large extent dependent on the whims of consumers, shows an increase of nearly 17 per cent. Page 1.

A recent survey of the vacation policies as regards production workers in various industries in Cincinnati, Ohio, shows that 111 firms in that city give vacations with pay to all or part of their production force. Only 13 of these establishments require more than one year's service in order to establish eligibility for a vacation and a vacation of one week was given in the majority of cases. Page 35.

The reasons why certain cooperative societies have discontinued operations are analyzed in an article on page 20. Most of the failures were due to financial insecurity, but a number ceased operating simply because the members grew tired of the task of running the business.

The unemployment survey of Columbus, Ohio, is of special interest because there have been so few studies of actual unemployment in this country. The study covered the years 1921 to 1925. The proportion of idle persons was found to fluctuate from 6.3 per cent in 1923, to 13.4 per cent in 1921, including, however, a certain number of sick and aged. Page 25.

An appraisal of the cost of rearing a child during infancy and adolescence in a family of moderate circumstances shows that the average amount expended for all items, except the cost of schooling provided by the community, is approximately $7,200. This figure, which is based on the expenditures of a family of five having an annual expenditure of $2,500, is believed to be a fair estimate of the money expended by such a family during the years when a child is being prepared to become a contributor economically to the family and the community. Page 51.

The volume of building construction in 130 American cities is shown by years from 1921 to 1925 in a study made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The purpose of the study is to show how much the country as a whole and the cities individually have overcome in the past few years the shortage in buildings caused by wartime curtailment. Page 71.

Conditions of labor in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City are described in a report of the governor's advisory commission. The commission finds that the large "inside" shops, which replaced the original sweat-shop system, are now threatened by the development of small "jobber-manufacturers," with lower labor standards. Page 31.

The southern negro, drawn to the North by the attraction of better economic, social, and educational conditions, is developing an unexpected power of adaptation to the northern environment, according

to the research director of the National Urban League. Industrially they are gaining ground, and are being advanced "to fill the gaps in semiskilled and skilled positions caused by promotion, retirement, and death." Under urban sanitary conditions, and a better standard of living, their death rate is falling. Housing presents a serious problem, and so do relations with the unions, but both of these questions are receiving increased attention and various solutions are possible. Page 29.

The rapid extension of the workers' education movement is one of the most significant of the postwar labor developments in the United States. As late as 1920 there were very few of these undertakings. Early in 1926 the secretary of the Workers' Education Bureau reported an enrollment of 40,000 students in workers' colleges or study classes in more than 300 industrial centers in some 40 States. A brief account of some of the more important undertakings is given on page 91.

Louisiana is one of only four States allowing children to be employed 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week, according to the commissioner of labor and industrial statistics of that State in his latest biennial report reviewed on page 39.

The basis of American prosperity lies, according to certain English observers, in the willingness of employers to pay high wages, provided they get high output, and to their determination to secure the latter at any cost of money, effort, and intelligence. Page 40.

Employment in manufacturing industries decreased 1.2 per cent in May, 1926, from the previous month, but was almost 1 per cent higher than in May, 1925. Page 103.

Recent price changes.—Retail food prices decreased almost 1 per cent in May, 1926, as compared with the previous month, but were 6.3 per cent higher than in May, 1925. Wholesale prices of all commodities increased very slightly between April and May, 1926, and were 2¼ per cent lower than in May, 1925. Page 124.

The executive decree of Guatemala forbidding strikes in public services and in certain private services has been disapproved by the legislative assembly of that country. Page 186.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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Index of Productivity of Labor in the Steel, Automobile, Shoe, and Paper Industries[1]

THERE is taking place in the United States to-day a new industrial revolution which may far exceed in economic importance that older industrial revolution ushered in by the series of mechanical inventions which occurred in England in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, and which eventually transformed English industrial, political, and social life. Many people to-day are aware of the fact that great improvements in machinery, processes, management, and output are taking place; but, except for a few magazine articles from time to time, very little has been done to express this advance in productive efficiency in comprehensive terms. Some people have hesitated to accept as typical of industrial production as a whole the surprising figures of improved output in particular plants or establishments. And yet, even when we deal in mass figures, the facts stand out clearly and unmistakably. We are at the present time experiencing what is perhaps the most remarkable advance in productive efficiency in the history of the modern industrial system. In the automobile industry the output per man in 1925 was three times as great as it was in 1914, an almost incredible increase in productivity in an industry which had attained, even before 1914, a high state of efficiency. Taking the output per man in 1914 as a base of 100, we find that the output in 1925 was for the iron and steel industry nearly 150 and for the boot and shoe industry 117; while on a 1917 base the output per man in 1925 in the paper and pulp industry was 134. And these figures, surprising as they are, cover only about a decade.

Until recently there has been good reason for the lack of precise information on the question of the changing productivity per worker in industry. With only a decennial, or at best a quinquennial, census from which to draw material on wage earners and production, it is not surprising that very little was done on this subject. If there is to be any regular index of productivity in the more important industries of the country, it must be worked out from statistical data which are being frequently and regularly gathered over the whole field of industry. This would hardly have been possible before the war; it has become feasible only because of the enormous expansion in the gathering of all kinds of production and employment statistics during and after the war. There is now available a biennial census of manufactures, in which can be found the number of wage earners and salaried employees, the standard hours of labor per week, and very frequently a detailed summary of the production for the year. The Bureau of Labor Statistics gathers monthly data on employment in all the important industries in the

[1] This is the first of a series of studies on the general subject of labor productivity indexes in American industry, now being carried on by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The studies are under the direction of Mr. Ewan Clague, formerly of the University of Wisconsin.

country, which can be used to supplement the census figures on number of workers. And the Department of Commerce, in cooperation with numerous trade associations in the various industries, now furnishes yearly and even monthly statistics on production. There is, then, every reason to attempt the working out of at least a crude index of productivity per worker in as many industries as possible. The present article covers only four industries—iron and steel, paper and pulp, boot and shoe, and automobile—but material on other industries is in preparation and will appear from time to time in the Labor Review. It is not pretended that these indexes are perfect, or that they measure with absolute accuracy the productive efficiency in the industries over the period in question. There are many gaps and uncertainties in the figures, as will be evident from the discussion below on the methods of constructing the indexes; but when all due allowances are made for inaccuracies the results are still striking enough to leave little room for doubt as to the meaning and importance of the recent developments in industrial production.

Indexes of Employment

THE general purpose of this investigation is to measure from year to year, in all important industries where it is at all possible to do so, the changing output per man-hour. Theoretically, this would require (a) accurate statistics on total man-hours expended in the industry in the course of each year, and (b) statistics on production during the year in terms of some uniform unit of measurement; but neither of these is available in any industry at the present time, nor is it likely that both of these will ever be available in most industries. Manufacturers do not ordinarily keep very precise records of total man-hours per year in their plants, and it is very seldom that the products of any industry are of such uniform character that the output of the various plants and processes could be added together to form a total for the industry as a whole. In the absence of the statistical data necessary to work out any index of productivity of this nature, the best that can be done is to try to approximate this result from the figures available. The first problem is that of getting some satisfactory index of man-hours.

The Census of Manufactures furnishes absolute figures of wage earners and salaried employees in each industry for the years 1914, 1919, 1921 and 1923, from which a fixed-base index can easily be derived. It is true that these figures are open to criticism: there are occasional changes of classification which affect the comparability of one census with another, there has been one change in the minimum size of establishments included, and there may be errors in the gathering and compilation of the data. But, even with all these taken into consideration, the substantial accuracy of the census figures can hardly be open to question.

The above can be supplemented by material available in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In November, 1915, the bureau began to gather month-to-month data on the number of men on the pay roll in 13 industries. In July, 1922, about 40 industries were added to the list and a few more have been added since then. This material is in the form of a comparison, for identical establishments, of the number

on the pay roll on a certain pay day in two successive months, together with the percentage of increase or decrease thus shown in the number employed. Using the average of the year 1923 as a base, the chain index for each industry has been reduced to a fixed base. For the original 13 industries the indexes cover the period 1916–1925; for the others, the period 1923–1925 only. The four industries discussed in this article are all in the original group; thus in each industry there are two indexes of employment covering almost the same period. The problem is that of coordinating these two to form a suitable yearly employment index.

This simple unadjusted employment index for each industry must be corrected to eliminate some of the more important errors in it. The defects of such an index may be summarized as follows: (1) In many industries the standard full-time daily or weekly hours have been changed materially during the last ten years, thus preventing the employment figures from reflecting the man-hours very accurately. (2) Even though standard hours remain the same, many workers put in overtime during prosperity and are kept on the pay roll at part-time work during depression. (3) In a slack period the whole plant may close down two or three days in the week for lack of orders, but this would not appear in the employment data. (4) The office force in some industries works different hours from those of the wage earners in the factory. (5) The voluntary or involuntary absences of individual workers increase and decrease with changes in business conditions. (6) The amount of turnover in the working force also varies with prosperity and depression.

Every one of these factors happens to have been particularly potent in the period covered by the employment figures (1914–1925)—a period in which there were extremes of prosperity and depression, of war-time regulation and post-war readjustment. Factors which in pre-war times could have been neglected as constant or insignificant must, for this period, be taken into consideration whenever it is at all possible. Fortunately, there are available enough supplementary data to adjust the simple employment indexes in the direction of closer conformity to the effective working time put in by the employees in each industry.

The first problem is the great reduction in weekly hours of labor which took place between the pre-war year of 1914 and the depression year of 1921, when the movement was somewhat arrested. Some pronounced reductions have also taken place since 1921, notably the abolition of the 12-hour day in the steel industry in 1923–24, and the reduction in Saturday work in certain branches of the paper industry in 1924–25. The simple employment indexes must be adjusted for hours of labor in two ways: For changes in full-time standard hours per week; and for changes in the hours actually worked per week. The Census of Manufactures contains, for the census years, a classification of standard full-time hours per week in each industry, with the number of employees in each class. From this can be determined the average full-time hours per week per wage earner. The Bureau of Labor Statistics also publishes reports on wages and hours of labor in certain industries, which are preferable to those of the census because account is taken not only of the standard full-time hours per week, but also of the actual hours worked during the week. This

furnishes the basis for an index of actual hours. This can be multiplied by the employment index and the result is a fairly good approximation of total man-hours for the industry. Unfortunately, these bureau investigations are limited in number, and in many cases census figures on standard full-time hours are the only adjustments which can be made of the employment indexes.

The problems connected with the changing phases of prosperity and depression (2, 3, 5, and 6 above) can not properly be taken into account with the data available at the present time. As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, there are in some instances special studies on wages and hours which make possible an adjustment for the overtime and part time put in by the workers. But since these are not made every year, the intervening years must be filled in by a certain amount of guesswork. When these studies cover the odd years 1917, 1919, 1921, and 1923, it is very fortunate, because these years furnish the peaks of prosperity and depression, and the even years can be supplied without much error. But studies in the even years do little more than show the general trend of standard hours. The other factors of turnover and individual absences can not possibly be accounted for; there are as yet no figures available on this subject. However, in proportion to total employment these factors would not be large enough to make much difference.

There remains the problem of office employees. The census data on standard hours per week are for wage earners only, and do not include salaried employees. In general, this does not make any important difference, because the office force works the same hours as the factory workers. There are, however, plants and industries where this is not the case; the wage earners may work 8, 9, or 10 hours a day and the office force only 7 or 8 hours. But even there the difference in hours would not affect an employment index adjusted for actual hours worked, except when the proportionate number of salaried employees and wage earners was undergoing an important change. Table 1, based on reports of censuses of manufactures, shows how constant the proportion of salaried employees has been in the four industries under consideration.

TABLE 1.—PER CENT OF SALARIED EMPLOYEES IN TOTAL WORKING FORCE IN FOUR INDUSTRIES, 1909-1923

Industry	1909	1914	1919	1921	1923	Average
Iron and steel	8.3	9.5	11.1	10.9	9.6	9.9
Paper and pulp	6.5	7.2	8.8	8.7	9.3	8.1
Boot and shoe	7.2	8.4	10.6	10.1	9.7	9.2
Automobile	10.9	12.4	12.9	14.2	10.3	12.1
Average per year	8.2	9.4	10.9	11.0	9.7	9.8
Average exclusive of automobiles	7.3	8.4	10.2	9.9	9.5	9.1

This table shows that the salaried employees form about one-tenth of the total workers. If the automobile industry, whose salaried employees form a consistently higher proportion of the force than in the other industries, is excluded, the average is only slightly over 9 per cent. That there is a tendency for the proportion of salaried workers to increase is shown by the fact that with the exception of the automobile industry, the percentages for 1923 are in every case

higher than those for 1909, the lowest increase being 1.3 per cent in the iron and steel industry and the highest 2.8 per cent in the paper and pulp industry. The automobile industry changed so fundamentally in character from 1909 to 1923 that no conclusions can be drawn. With this industry excluded, the percentage of salaried employees has risen from 7.3 to 9.5 per cent.

The figures are also significant with regard to prosperity and depression. It happens that the census years strike the extremes of business conditions during the period studied, 1909, 1919, and 1923 being years of great prosperity, and 1914 and 1921 being years of severe depression. Here again the automobile industry is the only one showing any marked variation; as far as the other three are concerned, it would be hard to tell which of the years 1919, 1921, or 1923 were years of prosperity. Theoretically, the percentage of salaried employees should increase markedly in depression years, because these employees are not laid off so quickly as wage earners; and should likewise be low in years of prosperity. Either this factor has been overrated on theoretical grounds or else the three industries mentioned are exceptional, which could hardly be the case, considering that they cover such a wide variety of industrial conditions. In the case of automobiles, productivity figures might possibly contain a slight error because of the changing percentage of salaried employees, but in the other industries under consideration the proportion is so constant for the period 1914–1925 that any errors introduced into the computations on this account may be neglected.

Indexes of Production

THE second problem is that of deriving some satisfactory index of physical production in the industry. The difficulties of doing this have already been mentioned briefly, the most important being the following: (1) In some industries the products are so varied and dissimilar, chemicals for instance, that it would be almost impossible, even though there were a common unit of measurement in the industry, to construct any kind of an index from the figures on output. (2) Other industries have products of such a nature that there is no common unit of measurement which could be applied to them all. In the cotton-goods industry, for example, woven cloth is measured in square yards, dyed and printed cloth in linear yards, yarn in pounds, and fine goods in pieces; and every single one of these units is inadequate as a measure of the amount of work done on the goods in question. Square yardage takes no account of the thickness and fineness of the weave; linear yardage does not account for the varying widths of dyed or printed cloth; the weight in pounds is seriously affected by the amount of water which is left in the yarn or cloth, as well as by the degree of fineness to which the yarn is spun; and the piece has no fixed length or width in actual practice. Yet these are the measures of output in actual use in the industry. (3) In many cases production figures are not available. The Department of Commerce, cooperating with numerous trade associations, is endeavoring to get statistics of physical production in all important industries in the United States, but the record is still very incomplete.

Despite these difficulties, indexes of physical production have been or are being constructed by a number of individuals or asso-

ciations, mostly along the lines laid down by Professors Day and Persons of Harvard University in working out an index of production for industry as a whole. But their composite index is made up of separate indexes for each of the important industries in the country. There are several devices by which an index of physical output for a single industry may be constructed, without taking account of all the multitude of products which the industry may turn out:

(1) The raw materials consumed may be a good key to production, especially in cases where a single important raw material enters into practically all the products. Thus the output of blast furnaces may be measured in tons of pig iron, but might also be quite accurately measured in tons of iron ore consumed. Sometimes, however, the raw materials are even more varied and incommensurable than the products.

(2) There may be one or two key products which reflect the state of the industry to a high degree of accuracy, such products being capable of measurement in some satisfactory unit. Practically all indexes of iron and steel production are based on the output of pig iron and steel ingots, though these are only two out of from fifty to one hundred important products. These two, however, form a satisfactory index of activity in the whole industry because they are intermediate products, and nearly all finished products of iron or steel have passed through either the one or the other of these stages.

(3) Again, the products of an industry, though not uniform and homogeneous, may be tied together through their respective values. It would not be particularly significant to add cigars and cigarettes together indiscriminately to get a total output for cigar and cigarette manufacturing; but it is not difficult to construct an index for each one separately. These two indexes would then have to be combined, and while there are a number of satisfactory bases for assigning weights to each, the most satisfactory method is to give each index a weight in proportion to the total value of the product at some one time. This weight is then kept constant throughout the period. It would be desirable to eliminate this value element entirely, but there are very few industries in which it does not have to be introduced in constructing an index.

(4) Lastly, some factor may have to be used which is distinct from either products or raw materials. In the cotton industry probably as good an index of production as can be made is based on the total spindle-hours, i. e., the number of spindles multiplied by the number of hours the plant has operated during the period; also the number of active spindles might be used as an index.

No one of these methods can be used for all industries. In the present study where it was at all possible, an index was constructed from the output of products of the industry in accordance with methods (2) or (3); and in the industries discussed in this article no other method was necessary.

Iron and Steel Industry

THE method generally followed by statisticians in constructing an index of iron and steel production is that of combining the two series of pig iron and steel ingots in some way. As already stated, these are the two key products and are assumed to be accurately

indicative of the output in all branches of the industry. The only statistical problem involved, under the assumption, is that of weighting the two series in making the combined index.

The weights chosen have varied widely. The first Federal Reserve Board index was constructed by giving the pig-iron series a weight of 18 and steel ingots a weight of 6, with the explanation that "in the construction of the index the production of each commodity was weighted by both the value added to it in all processes of manufacture and by the number of men working upon it in all stages of manufacture as shown by the Census of 1919." [2] From this it is not clear just how the two factors were used, but it is obviously a value weight with some adjustment for the number of employees in each process. In 1924, however, the weights were practically reversed, pig iron being given a weight of 5 and steel ingots a weight of 17, with the same explanation as before: "In manufactures wage earners employed and total value added by the process of manufacture in the respective industries during the year were used jointly to secure weights." [3] The latter weights are the ones now used in the Federal Reserve Board index. Professors Day and Persons, of Harvard University, in constructing their index of physical production for the United States as a whole, weighted the two series equally; iron and steel as an industry was assigned a weight of 22.4 out of 100, pig iron and steel ingots being each given 11.2.[4] In the iron and steel index of the Bureau of the Census the weights are distributed as follows: Pig iron, 9; steel ingots, 57; locomotives, 4.[5] These weights are based directly on the value added by manufacture in 1919, with steel ingots being considered representative of the total manufacture of all rolled and unrolled steel products. All things considered, this system of weights is the best for the purpose of constructing an index of productivity, though the locomotives must be excluded, for the employment figures of the Bureau of Labor Statistics cover only iron and steel proper. The disadvantage of the Federal Reserve Board weights is that they include some adjustment for number of men employed, and this must be rigidly excluded from the production index in working out an index of productivity. The weights used, therefore, for the present study were pig iron 9, and steel ingots 57.

Index of Employment

The foundation upon which the final index of employment has been built was the data in the Census of Manufactures supplemented by the month-to-month chain index of employment of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The census figures are comprehensive and cover substantially the whole industry; hence they are used without modification for the years in which they are available. The total number of wage earners plus salaried employees in the industry in 1914 is taken as a base, the figures for the years 1919, 1921, and 1923 being reduced to index numbers. With these points established, there is left the problem of filling in the gaps, and it is here that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index is important.

[2] Federal Reserve Board Bulletin, December, 1922, pp. 1416 et seq.
[3] Idem, March, 1924, p. 184.
[4] Harvard Review of Economic Statistics, July, 1923, p. 209.
[5] United States Department of Commerce. Survey of Current Business, January, 1923, p. 24.

The bureau index is, at first, a month-to-month chain constructed from the employment figures of identical firms. It is later reduced to a fixed base, originally 1916, but more recently changed to 1923. This kind of an index is obviously not suitable for measuring employment changes over any considerable period of time. In the first place, any chain index on a fixed base has a tendency to go astray if carried too far, and because the deviations do not occur in accordance with any general rule or principle, it is impossible to make allowances for them.[6] Secondly, since the bureau index is derived from employment figures for identical firms, it is essentially a measure of static rather than dynamic conditions. It is practically impossible to obtain reports from all firms in the industry, and it is especially difficult to secure adequate representation of the new firms which are apt to appear in times of prosperity, and which are usually the ones to close down in depression. Therefore, when reduced to a fixed base, the index in good times is likely to be too low and in bad times too high to measure with absolute accuracy the condition of employment throughout the industry. However, when used simply to bridge the gap between the census years, this index proves perfectly satisfactory; and by its use it is possible to get an employment index for every year from 1914 to 1925, except the year 1915.

The census figures for 1925 are not yet available, consequently the bureau index alone was used for the period 1924–25. The year 1924 was one of mild depression in the steel industry, while 1925 was a year of prosperity, but it is unlikely that the bureau index has been seriously affected by business conditions during this period. When the census figures become available the indexes for 1924 and 1925 can be revised, if necessary.

The next point to be taken into consideration was the change in hours of labor in the iron and steel industry from 1914 to 1925. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has from time to time made studies of working hours, and a summary of the changes in hours was given in Bulletin No. 381. That report contained a table giving index numbers of full-time hours per week in the various kinds of mills in the iron and steel industry. Unfortunately, there are gaps in this data, for they cover only the years 1913 to 1915, 1917 (except puddling, bar, and plate mills), 1919, 1920, 1922, and 1924; but they furnish enough material so that the intervening years can be filled in with probably no great errors. The index for 1916, for instance, was assumed to be closer to that for 1917 than to that for 1915; while 1918 was placed halfway between 1917 and 1919. The year 1923 was the only one causing great difficulty, and this arose from the fact that this was the year in which the abolition of the 12-hour day was begun. The index numbers of full-time hours for 1922 and 1924 show such pronounced reductions as the following: Blast furnaces, from 93 to 75; Bessemer converters, from 98 to 75; open-hearth furnaces, from 93 to 74; blooming mills, from 95 to 78; and plate mills, from 95 to 82. Any attempt to fill in figures for 1923 would be open to criticism, but there is at least some basis on which an estimate can be made. The elimination of the 12-hour day did not begin until August, 1923,

[6] See discussion in Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin, No. 284: Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries, pp. 85–89.

and it was announced by the steel companies that the change would be gradual and would take considerable time. Considering then that fully half the year was worked on the 1922 hours, and that during the remainder of the year the reduction in hours was taking place gradually, it is probably that not more than one-fourth of the total eventual reduction took place in 1923. Accordingly, the working hours from 1923 were estimated on the principle that they were 25 per cent removed from 1922 hours and 75 per cent removed from the hours in 1924. This is probably a very liberal estimate of the amount of reduction in hours during 1923.

The index numbers for the various kinds of mills were then combined into a composite index of full-time hours for the iron and steel industry as a whole. Dividing the employment index by this full-time hours index gives an adjusted employment index, which is as close to actual man-hours as can be got from existing data. This does not make any allowance for part-time or overtime work; it takes account only of the changes in standard full-time hours.

Index of Productivity

The final step in the computation consisted in dividing the production index by the adjusted index of employment to obtain a productivity index. This is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.—PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY, 1914 TO 1925

Year	Production index [1]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index	Year	Production index [1]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index
1914	100.0	100.0	100.0	1921	82.5	88.5	93.2
1916	180.2	146.4	123.1	1922	146.8	113.2	129.7
1917	188.1	165.2	113.9	1923	188.7	144.3	130.8
1918	186.1	179.4	103.7	1924	157.8	123.1	128.2
1919	145.5	150.8	96.4	1925	189.0	126.6	149.3
1920	176.4	156.9	112.4				

[1] Production figures taken from the annual statistical reports of the Iron and Steel Institute.

The table seems to show that the output per worker in the iron and steel industry increased about 50 per cent from 1914 to 1925, but this is undoubtedly an exaggeration of the actual facts, for the year 1914 was one of severe depression, while 1925 was at least a good year, if not one of actual prosperity. In an industry so sensitive to good and bad times as the iron and steel industry, there is need for caution in drawing comparisons between depression and prosperity years, since there is in the figures no adequate adjustment for changes in man-hours due to changes in business conditions. But it will be noted that the production index for the industry is remarkably constant for all good years; for the years 1916, 1917, 1918, 1920, 1923, and 1925 the maximum difference in output in any two years is less than 13 per cent on a 1914 base or 8 per cent on a 1916 base. Taking into consideration these peaks only, the general trends in productivity stand out quite clearly. With the expansion of production and the

introduction of new workers into the industry during the war years, the productivity fell markedly. The low index for 1919 is, of course, due to the strike in September of that year, and it is not at all improbable that the productivity for 1920 was also influenced by the strike. The low index for 1921 was due to the depression of that year, when the production fell off in greater degree than did the number of workers. But with returning prosperity the figures for productivity become more significant, and despite the abolition of the 12-hour day, or perhaps because of it, the index reaches new high figures. In view of the fact that the index for 1914 is probably much too low for a fair comparison with the year 1925, it may be more satisfactory to use two-year averages in each case. Taking an average index for 1914 and 1916 as 100, the average for 1924 and 1925 is 124.4. This makes an increase of approximately 25 per cent between the two periods.

Automobile Industry

IN THE automobile industry the production can be measured only in the number of cars produced, and these of course represent a wide variety of models, sizes, workmanship, etc. But there is no other unit of measurement available, so this must be used for what it is worth. The following are the most important factors which would seriously affect an index number of production based on the total output of cars in the industry: The somewhat disproportionate increase in small light cars in contrast to heavy cars, which would lead to an index number too high for the actual production, since a light car is not the equivalent of a heavy one; the recent sharp change from the open to the closed car; the production of trucks and other business cars; and the growth of the automobile bodies and parts industry, which has led to the development of the system of contracting for the production of various parts of the car, the automobile company doing little else but assembling.

Not all these factors can be taken into account statistically. There is no very satisfactory material on the change from heavy to light cars. The National Automobile Chamber of Commerce does publish figures on the tonnage of trucks produced, showing that there is a clear and gradual trend in the direction of lighter trucks in proportion to heavy ones; but the change has not been sufficiently great to justify revision of production figures on that account. The change in passenger cars is probably of about the same degree, and while the failure to take account of it may lead to some slight overestimation of production, the error would not by any means invalidate the figures.

On the other hand the production index can be adjusted for open cars, closed cars, and trucks. For this purpose the figures of the National Automobile Chamber of Commerce have been used. They agree very closely with the Census figures, and they have the advantage over the census of being taken yearly instead of every two years. The change from the open car to the closed car between 1914 and 1925 is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3.—PER CENT OPEN AND CLOSED CARS IN TOTAL PRODUCTION, 1914 TO 1925[1]

Type of car	Per cent of total production							
	1914	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Open cars	98.0	89.7	83.0	77.9	70.0	66.0	57.0	42.9
Closed cars	2.0	10.3	17.0	22.1	30.0	34.0	43.0	57.1

[1] From National Automobile Chamber of Commerce pamphlets: Facts and Figures of the Automobile Industry.

In constructing the index the weights chosen were based on the relative prices of the three types—closed cars, open cars, and trucks—in the year 1923, as shown by the census of manufactures and figures of the National Automobile Chamber of Commerce. The year 1923 was chosen in preference to 1914 or 1919 because it is sufficiently recent to include the cheaper type of closed car, and because it avoids the rather serious discrepancy between the census figures and the N. A. C. C. figures with reference to the number of trucks produced in 1919. The price figures were found by dividing the total value for each class, as given in the census, by the number of cars listed in that class in the census. The result was to give open cars a weight of 6, closed cars a weight of 10, and trucks a weight of 9. It is possible that since the price may also be due to expensive materials, these weights overestimate the importance of closed cars and make the production index too high.

Index of Employment

The employment index was constructed by the same method used in the case of the iron and steel industry. The census index is used as the foundation, and the bureau index, recomputed to conform to the census index for the census years, then furnishes indexes for the intervening years. The employment index covers both the automobile industry proper and the bodies and parts industry, for it would be a hopeless task to try to work out separate indexes of production and productivity for each industry. The two are so intimately connected and intertwined that the only way to handle them was to consider them both together; and this could safely be done without causing any errors in either employment or production figures.

A survey of the census figures on hours of labor for 1914, 1919, 1921, and 1923 reveals that there was a drop in the hours per week from 54 to about 50 between 1914 and 1919, but that since the latter year there has been no appreciable change. There was then no need for a readjustment of the crude employment figures after 1919, but the difference between that and the pre-war figure for hours per week had to be smoothed off. This was done by decreasing the hours per week by one hour for each of the years 1916, 1917, and 1918. The actual reduction in hours may have been accomplished more suddenly than this, but the important point to get was the trend. A more serious matter was the lack of figures on the changes in actual overtime and part-time work put in by the workers in the automobile industry; it was impossible to adjust the employment index in this respect.

Index of Productivity

The employment index, adjusted for the change in full-time hours per week between 1914 and 1919, was then used as a divisor of the production index to get the index of productivity. This is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.—INDEX OF PRODUCTIVITY IN THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY, 1914 TO 1925

Year	Production index [1]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index	Year	Production index [1]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index
1914	100.0	100.0	100.0	1921	332.6	155.0	214.5
1916	287.7	168.0	171.0	1922	553.9	210.0	264.0
1917	340.0	203.0	167.5	1923	869.9	295.0	295.0
1918	223.6	210.0	[2] 106.5	1924	804.2	278.0	289.0
1919	352.9	250.0	141.0	1925	988.4	319.0	310.0
1920	383.7	289.0	133.0				

[1] Production figures from National Automobile Chamber of Commerce reports and from the census.
[2] The output of automobiles was cut down during the war, because the Government encouraged automobile manufacturers to turn their attention to the production of war munitions and Government supplies. Hence the productivity figures for 1917, 1918, and even for 1919 were seriously affected.

Even allowing for the possibility of errors, there is no escaping the conclusion that the output per worker has been increased enormously in this industry during the last 10 years. The index is 310, which means that each worker is producing more than three times as much as he did before the war. The amount of this increase seems almost incredible, and it is probably too high. Since 1914 was a year of depression, post-war and pre-war comparison is more accurate if the year 1916 is taken as indicative of conditions before the war. On the 1916 base, the index for 1925 is slightly over 181, indicating that output per man has not quite doubled in 10 years. Obviously, the standardization of processes, the invention of machines, and the improvements in management in this industry during the decade have resulted in a remarkable increase in productivity of labor.

Boot and Shoe Industry

STATISTICS on production in the boot and shoe industry are very scanty. There are no production figures at all prior to 1921, except those in the census of manufactures for 1914 and 1919, a fact which necessitates the omission from the productivity index of the years 1915–1918 and 1920. The production unit of the industry is one pair of shoes, an exceedingly variable and unsatisfactory unit in view of the variation in styles, sizes, and quality. The census gives separate production statistics for men's, women's, youths' and boys', girls' and misses', and "all other" shoes, but there is so little uniformity within these classes that it is doubtful if any system of weighting or adjusting would add anything to the accuracy of the production index. Therefore the pair has been taken as the unit, and the figures for the various classes have been added together indiscriminately to obtain a figure for total production, from which the index of production has been constructed.

Index of Employment

The employment index for the boot and shoe industry has both weak and strong points. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index

deviated farther from that of the census for this industry than for any other industry and required considerable adjustment upward after 1919. In view of the fact that this adjustment amounted to approximately 10 per cent for 1923, there may be some question as to whether the census figures for employment in the boot and shoe industry may not be too large in recent years. Practically all the more important firms reporting to the bureau have shown decreased employment in 1923 as compared with 1919; but in order not to overstate the productivity the census figures have been used as in other industries, the bureau index being adjusted to them and then used to bridge the intercensal years. On the other hand, the index can be strengthened because of the fact that the Bureau of Labor Statistics made special studies of the actual time worked by the employees in 1920, 1922, and 1924.[7] One of the points covered in these studies is the percentage of actual time worked in relation to the full-time standard hours of the plant, which comes as close to furnishing data on the actual man-hours as anything available in this or any other industry. It is unfortunate that the data do not cover the more spectacular years 1919, 1921, and 1923, in order that there might be some figures on the best and worst years in the industry; but the material as it is makes possible some very important adjustments in the employment index as derived from the bureau index and census figures on employment. It has been assumed that the year 1919 would have shown about the same proportion of actual to full-time hours as 1920, that 1921 and 1922 would show about the same percentage, and that the 1924 figures would apply to 1923 and 1925. This probably overestimates the time actually worked during 1921, and underestimates it for 1923 and 1925, but in the absence of data for these years the substitution of the estimates is better than leaving the employment figures unadjusted.

Index of Productivity

From the census data on hours of labor it appears that the standard full-time hours per week in 1914 were nearly 55, while by 1919 these had been reduced to 52, where they remained for the rest of the period. Thus the original employment index was adjusted in two respects—by an index of the changing standard hours per week, and by another index of actual time worked. The final adjusted index was then used as a divisor of the production index to obtain the index of productivity shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—INDEX OF PRODUCTIVITY IN THE BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY, 1914, 1919, AND 1921 TO 1925

Year	Production index [6]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index	Year	Production index [6]	Adjusted employment index	Productivity index
1914	100.0	100.0	100.0	1923	120.0	99.0	121.0
1919	113.2	98.5	115.0	1924	107.0	93.0	115.0
1921	98.0	80.0	122.5	1925	110.6	95.0	116.5
1922	110.7	91.0	120.5				

[6] Production figures from United States Department of Commerce, Survey of Current Business, February, 1926, p. 53.

[7] See Bulletins Nos. 278, 360, and 374.

The difference between the boot and shoe industry and the industries already shown is evident at once. The employment index for 1920 (not shown in the table) is 93, but the absence of a production index prevents the computation of a productivity index for that year. Nevertheless, it is clear that by 1921 the working force had been reduced and productivity increased to a point which has not been exceeded since. The existence of this high point of productivity however, could not have been shown had it not been for the bureau studies on actual and full time worked. The situation in this industry would seem to indicate that the low productivity shown in 1921 in the other industries may have been due, in part at least, to a lack of data on actual hours with which to adjust the employment index; the latter would thus overstate the time really put in by the workers and understate their productivity.

Two important features distinguish the boot and shoe productivity index from the indexes for other industries: First, the relatively small increase since 1914, and, second, the marked decline in productivity since 1921. A comparison of the depression years of 1914 and 1924 shows an increase of only 15 per cent, which certainly can not be considered large; and even the good years show an increase of only about 20 per cent. It is equally clear that productivity has shown a slight tendency to decline in recent years, which is in contrast with the experience of most industries.

There is one other source from which data are available as a check upon this point. In 1916 and in 1923 the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a detailed study of the time and labor cost of manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes (Bul. No. 360), which showed that when the 1916 cost figures were compared with the 1923 cost figures of the same establishment the time cost in 1923 was 25.1 per cent less than in 1916. Translating the comparison into one of productivity in a given time, we have the following:

Labor time required for manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes:	1916	1923
Minutes	8,560.10	7,411.74
Hours	142.70	106.86
Productivity index	100.0	133.5

These figures were taken in the same establishment for as nearly the same type of shoe as could be found in the year 1923. They seem to indicate a clear and definite increase of productivity during the period, but this would not prove very much as far as the whole industry is concerned, for a particular establishment such as this one, working on a particular style of shoe, might easily show improvements which would not be indicative of conditions in the industry generally.

There remains the problem of why this industry should be so different from other industries. Discussion with manufacturers and factory superintendents in the industry brings out the fact that there have been two pronounced tendencies in production during recent years. One is the change from the high shoe to the low shoe, though the only effect this has is to reduce the consumption of leather, for the labor involved is practically the same. The other is the great increase in demand of retailers for varied and fancy styles. This affects production directly, because it means a decrease in standardization; instead of running off thousands of pairs of shoes on one

pattern, the lots have been reduced to hundreds and even dozens, each lot differing from the others by some insignificant variations of stitching or perforation. This in itself would probably be quite sufficient to account for the decreased productivity in shoe production, since it tends to prevent the substitution of machinery for hand labor. In some factories, even in the year 1926, the lots are so small that it is cheaper to have the cutting done by hand than to have new dies made for the cutting machines. This is a clear case of the effect of demand upon productivity and probably explains quite satisfactorily the decline in productivity in recent years.

Paper and Pulp Industry

THE computation of an index of production for the paper and pulp industry involves the problem of weighing correctly the relative importance of some 10 or 12 distinct products. It is possible to reduce the classes of manufactured paper to six—newsprint, boxboard, book, wrapping, fine writing, and "all other" paper—but even this simplification does not dispose of the problem. Of course, it would not be impracticable to add the tonnage of these various kinds together to get a figure for the total amount of paper produced, but this procedure would certainly result in a rather questionable production index, for there are differences in the relative amounts of time and labor involved in each case, and the production of each kind does not fluctuate with the others. For pulp there is the same problem, with at least four kinds to be considered in constructing the index. These can be reduced to two by combining the chemical pulp (sulphite, sulphate, and soda) and adjusting the resultant figure to the production of mechanical or ground-wood pulp. All pulp other than that made wholly or largely from wood has been disregarded.

The production figures for the chemical pulps and for mechanical pulp were turned into indexes with a 1919 base, and the two series were combined to form a general pulp index, each series being weighted according to the relative values of the two kinds of pulp in 1919—5 for mechanical and 17 for chemical pulp. These two weights were arrived at only after extended computation, from census data; the census gives the value only of the pulp which was sold from one plant to another, though it gives figures for the pulp produced and consumed in the same plant. The method used in arriving at these weights was to assign to the pulp used directly without being sold the same value per ton as that which was sold, and these new values being then added to the census values for pulp sold. The result was the total value of each kind of pulp produced. There can hardly be any serious mistake in assigning market values to unsold pulp in this way, since it is logically correct and is in line with the practice of economists in imputing values to stored or unsold products.

In the construction of the paper index the same method was used. An index was computed for each kind of paper produced, and these indexes were then combined, with weights in proportion to the value of each kind as shown in the census of 1919, newsprint 99, box board 124, book 142, wrapping 123, fine writing 88, and all other 123. These weights are not so accurate as could be desired, for some paper, such as newsprint, is composed of an 80 per cent–20 per cent com-

bination of ground-wood and sulphite pulp, while fine writing paper is made largely from the more expensive sulphite and still more expensive rag pulp. This causes the value of the finished paper to be due partly to the expensive materials. The preferable weights for purposes of this kind are those based upon the value added by manufacture in a given year; but these figures are not available in the census for all kinds of paper. Some kinds of paper, such as newsprint and fine writing paper, had, up to within the last year, scarcely recovered the ground lost in 1921, while the production of wrapping and book paper has increased about 50 per cent since 1919. It is evident that if the relative weighting had been based upon 1923 total values, the composite index for the last four years would be somewhat higher, since it would be strongly influenced by book and wrapping paper figures.

The pulp and paper indexes were combined to form an index for the industry as a whole, for so many mills produce paper from the wood in a continuous process that there is no way of separating the two branches. The process of combining the paper and pulp indexes also involves much roundabout computation in order to get satisfactory weights. It is largely a problem of assigning values to unsold pulp. The net result was that pulp was weighted 225 and the paper index 563. Table 6 shows the two indexes and final composite index.

TABLE 6.—PRODUCTION INDEX FOR THE PAPER AND PULP INDUSTRY, 1917 TO 1925

Year	Pulp index [1]	Paper index [1]	Composite index	Year	Pulp index [1]	Paper index [1]	Composite index
1917	99.0	95.3	96.4	1922	102.4	[2] 106.7	105.5
1918	96.1	98.8	98.0	1923	113.4	118.5	117.0
1919	100.0	100.0	100.0	1924	122.8	122.0	122.2
1920	114.9	119.3	118.0	1925	124.6	131.1	129.2
1921	81.1	85.4	84.2				

[1] Production figures from United States Department of Commerce. Survey of Current Business, February, 1926, pp. 56–59.
[2] Estimated. Figures as given in the Survey of Current Business are the result of a clerical error.

Index of Employment

The employment index was derived in exactly the same way as in the case of industries previously considered, the census figures and the Bureau of Labor Statistics index being combined to form a continuous index for the years for which there are production figures (1917 to 1925). The index was then adjusted for the hours of labor as shown by the census reports. The average standard full-time hours per week in 1914 were 58½; in 1919, slightly under 52; 1921, about 52⅓; and 1923, slightly over 52. There was evidently very little change after 1919, but a very marked change during the war. In order not to overestimate the man-hours for 1917 and 1918, it was assumed that the working week was 54 hours in 1917 and 53 hours in 1918, which is probably conservative enough. At the suggestion of the Department of Labor in 1924, the paper box-board industry agreed to reduce the working week to 5 days with clean-up on Saturday, and it is reported that about 80 per cent of the industry is observing this agreement; but this change did not take place soon enough to have had any influence at all prior to 1925, and it is such a small change in relation to the paper industry as a whole that it

would be very slight even at present. No material at all is available on the actual hours worked, but since the pulping process at least is largely continuous, it is probable that any adjustments on this account would not be very great, even if the figures were available.

Index of Productivity

The following table shows the production index, the employment index, and the resulting productivity index for the industry.

TABLE 7.—INDEX OF PRODUCTIVITY FOR THE PAPER AND PULP INDUSTRY

[Base, 1919=100.0]

Year	Production index	Employment index	Productivity index	Year	Production index	Employment index	Productivity index
1917	96.4	102.8	93.8	1922	105.5	97.1	108.7
1918	98.0	100.5	97.5	1923	117.0	106.4	110.0
1919	100.0	100.0	100.0	1924	122.2	101.6	120.3
1920	118.0	119.1	99.1	1925	129.2	102.8	125.7
1921	84.2	93.3	90.2				

The trend of productivity shown in the table is clear and pronounced. With the usual exception of the years affected by the postwar depression, there is an annual increase in productivity from 1917 down to date. It is important to note that the employment indexes for 1917 and 1925 are the same, while the output for the same period increased 34 per cent, indicating that the increased output has been the result of improved methods of production. If there were any data at all on actual hours worked, the decline in 1920 would undoubtedly be corrected, though it is doubtful if the 10 per cent drop in 1921 would be eliminated entirely. Much new and improved machinery is being introduced into the industry at the present time, and this probably accounts for the 34 per cent increase in productivity which took place in the 9 years from 1917 to 1925.

Conclusion

TWO points must be emphasized in order to guard against any misinterpretation of the import of this study. The first involves the validity of the use of an index of employment or man-hours without taking into consideration the differences in skill and ability of the various classes of workers. There are office employees on the one hand and wage earners on the other; there are the managers and the workers, engineers and ditch diggers, labor direct and indirect, workers skilled and unskilled, and even within the same class there are fast workers and slow ones, good workers and poor ones. In the indexes as constructed, these were considered equal and lumped together, each man counting as one. The objection is often raised that an average of this sort does not mean much. A factory owner may introduce a labor-saving machine which eliminates five unskilled workers, but may have found it a financial loss because it requires two highly trained men to tend it. Theoretically, this machine saves physical labor; but at the same time it increases the use of trained or skilled labor which is much more scarce and more costly.

This point becomes of some importance when the changing proportions of wage earners and salaried employees in most industries

is noted. As shown in Table 1, the high percentage of salaried employees in a highly mechanized and standardized industry like automobile manufacturing stands in sharp contrast with the low percentage in some of the other industries. This might be partly taken care of by weighting the man-hours of an engineer very much higher than those of an ordinary workman; though there would still remain the more difficult problem of adjusting for skilled artisans and unskilled laborers, for fast, willing workers, and for loafers. When all kinds of labor were thus weighted according to some rule, the final adjusted man-hours would then be the basis of comparison with production to obtain the productivity.

There are several reasons why this can not and should not be done. For one thing, it is clearly impossible to get data on all the variations, and even were the data available, there would be no sound rule for fixing weights. Ricardo wrestled with this problem a hundred years ago, and he finally came to the conclusion that the laborers should be weighted according to the wages which each brought on the market. Economists since Ricardo have regularly and frequently exposed the fallacies of this procedure. And even apart from the logical fallacies of this method, there is the practical difficulty that labor is not a commodity in the sense that its value (wages) has any pronounced tendency to fall to the cost of production of the laborer. Due to the immobility of labor, to custom and habit, to artificial restrictions, and to a dozen other influences, the wages of laborers can and do vary from place to place, from time to time, and from trade to trade, with no apparent tendency to even up for many generations of workers. For the purpose of measuring physical productivity, it is doubtful if a system of weighting different kinds of labor by the wages paid to each would be a sound method of procedure.

Moreover, it is open to question whether any weighting at all should be considered. Economists call attention to the fact that man is both the end and the means of production, and in a study of this kind these two aspects can not be treated separately. Legally, politically, socially, men are theoretically equal; one man's vote is supposed to count for as much as another's, and his legal rights are, in theory at least, as well protected. There is no more reason for counting one man's labor for more than another's than there is for giving one man two votes, speaking now from the social point of view. The change in the skill, education, and willingness of the population over a period of years can not be measured. What can be measured is the increase in population, and in what industries that population expends its productive efforts. Therefore, we can legitimately charge up against each industry the total number of workers which it employs in any capacity, ignoring the quality or the nature of the men and women involved. Of course, this question is at present purely theoretical. From an engineering viewpoint, a good case can be made out for weighing the changing proportions of skilled and unskilled workers in an industry during the last 10 years, for adjusting the index to the sudden jump from men to women or whites to negroes, and for taking into consideration the increasing proportion of clerical and research workers in relation to the total. But even though the engineering viewpoint be accepted, there is at present no satisfactory theory upon which to base a system of weights; hence the method of equal weighting must be used.

The second point which must be emphasized is that there is in this study, and particularly in the use of the word "productivity," no implication as to which group among those cooperating in production was responsible for the increased output, and no suggestion as to whom the benefits are being, or should be, given. These are theoretical questions of imputation, while this study is primarily concerned with measuring and fact finding. The "productivity" is a matter of the whole industry rather than of labor specifically. There are three general classes of men cooperating in production—workers, capitalists, and executives or managers. The output may be increased through an invention of one of the workers, through research carried on at the expense of the capitalists, or through new processes installed by the managers. It is recorded, for example, that the pulling-over machine in the shoe industry was finally perfected at a cost of over $1,000,000; and the remarkable increase in production in the automobile industry has been due largely to new methods of routing materials and establishing endless belts for carrying the work along. In some industries increased productivity can be traced directly to large-scale use of capital, with its resultant saving in overhead expense and reduction of waste. The problem of assigning the credit for the increase in production is a difficult one. The "productivity" of labor is often confused with what might more properly be called the "efficiency" of labor, used in a very narrow and restricted sense to refer to the specific contribution which labor makes to production. The contribution of labor as a whole, as distinct from what individual workers may succeed in suggesting or inventing, consists largely of (1) productive capacity or ability and (2) willing cooperation. It must not be denied that these are very important factors producing or preventing results in output, but it is evident that of all factors these are the most intangible and the least susceptible to quantitative measurement. If laborers could be tested out in identical factories, with the same tools, under the same conditions, for ten or twenty years, it might be possible to work out some measure of these two factors; but as it is any changes in these factors are hopelessly mixed in with the changes due to machinery and management.

Likewise, the problem of the distribution of the gains, if there should happen to be any benefits accruing from the increased production, is entirely outside the scope of this article. In addition to the three classes mentioned above, there is a fourth class—the consumers—who must be considered. The benefits of increased output may not go at all to the class largely responsible for it. When the capitalists succeed in establishing a partial or complete monopoly, either through patents on the invention or through financial power, they are often in a position to reap most of the benefits that result. In the case of the linotype machine, a powerful union of the workers enabled them to get first chance at learning the new machine and secured for them a fairly good share of the benefits of this invention. Sometimes, especially when competition is severe, nearly everything may go to the public in reduced prices. But all these matters are outside the sphere of this study, which is concerned only with measuring the extent to which changes in productivity per worker have taken place.

Causes of Failure of Certain Cooperative Societies

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics in the course of its study of cooperative societies has been collecting data on the dead as well as the living societies. Thus far, of a total of some 3,200 societies from which reports have been requested, information has been received of 750 societies that have for one reason or another discontinued business during the six-year period 1920 to 1925.

Voluntary Liquidations

BY FAR the greatest number of these societies were financial failures and were forced into bankruptcy. Several, however, discontinued operations voluntarily, mainly for the reason that the members grew tired of the task of running the business. In some of these cases, failure threatened, largely because of insufficient patronage by the members. The secretary of one such society reports that "we made some money but not enough to satisfy us," the affairs of the organization became involved through the granting of too much credit, and the members lost interest and were doing their trading at other stores. This was a society of 48 members with a small capital. In 1920, after having been in business 13 years, the paid-in share capital amounted to $4,800, there was no reserve fund, and the undivided surplus amounted to $29,545. This made a total working capital of $34,345. Of this nearly one-third was tied up in credit extended to members. The merchandise inventory was valued at $23,482, and stock turnover averaged only 2.4 per year. So, after having struggled along for nearly 19 years, the members sold out.

A store in one city was formed just before the war by a group of well-to-do people who felt that they were being charged unduly high prices. It carried a higher grade of goods than is usually handled and was a success from the first, twice having to move to larger quarters. The store had the policy of paying its employees, in addition to wages, a bonus on business done. After having operated successfully for 10 years "the members grew tired of conducting it and voted to close out." The former treasurer reports that the store had returned purchase dividends aggregating more than 200 per cent of the capital stock. His report concludes with the statement: "The fixtures and some goods were junked in closing out, so we could not pay up our obligations in full."

A third society which liquidated voluntarily, but with the wolf not far from the door, had an interesting and, for cooperators anxious to avoid the pitfalls into which others have fallen, an instructive history. Organized by a group of farmers at a time when prices were rising, it began without capital stock, depending for funds on a small membership fee. It nevertheless prospered in a small way. With a change in management a change in policy was made. Capital stock was issued, most of which was invested in fixtures, real estate, and buildings. This necessitated conducting the business itself on borrowed money at 7 per cent interest. The manager branched out into new lines of business and extended credit freely, such accounts rising as high as $30,000 on a paid-up capital of about $45,000. Due to the cost of the borrowed money, the very small margin on which goods were sold, the reckless buying of goods, and the loss through giving

credit, there were no profits. What the directors and members were doing all this while the report fails to state. About the time they found the society was "losing out," however, the manager resigned. Several successors in the position tried to save the business but were unable to do so and the society finally liquidated to avoid a receivership. The assets were sufficient to cover the claims, and the stockholders received 20 per cent of the value of their stock and, it is expected, will receive 30 per cent more. That the members and directors are even now far from recognizing their own responsibility or power in the society is indicated by the following opinion of the secretary:

> A number of the stockholders have asked me to reorganize. They would be ready to take stock and assist in cooperating. But the management might in the future pass into bad hands and again be a failure. I am sure the success of cooperative work is in the manager of the business. And money needed at a lower rate of interest than our local banks will furnish.

Several societies closed out for no apparent reason. One of these sold out at a time when the operations were yielding a trade rebate and interest of 8 per cent on capital stock. The society was free of debt, and each $200 share had assets of $325 behind it. Another society quit voluntarily, paying all claims and returning to members $11 for each $10 share. The store was running successfully and was not in debt. A third successful association composed of teachers voted to discontinue because "we were so busy we had to drop something." A fourth organization discontinued operations because of the "financial condition of the country." Still another society in successful operation for more than half a century dissolved because its members and others abused its delivery service and credit.

> It got to be a habit among customers to purchase [at neighborhood stores] what they could carry home, and pay cash, then phone our store and order something, say, for instance, potatoes or kerosene oil, have it delivered and have it charged. We got rather tired of that diet and decided to close, and did so. It was not a case of being obliged to do it, but simply that we got sick of being the goat. It goes without saying that a store that solicits orders as we did and then makes delivery can not compete on every item with the so-called "chain stores," and it is a policy of the buying public to try the "cash and carry" idea. Times have changed greatly since our store started. For instance, the time of paying off help in our chair factories was sometimes only once in three months, later this was changed to monthly, and finally it was the custom to pay weekly, so the excuse for having groceries charged is not as necessary as in the old days.

When the store closed, members received about $23 for each $5 share of stock, "a record unequaled by any corporation of its kind in this State. As a matter of fact, at the time it ceased doing business, it was the oldest corporation in [the State] if not in New England. It did the largest (strictly grocery) business of any concern in this vicinity."

The Failures

DATA more or less complete are at hand concerning 249 defunct societies. Of the 210 for which the year of establishment is known, 171, or 81.4 per cent, were established during the period 1914 to 1920 when prices were rising so rapidly that wages could not keep pace and the necessity was felt for some means of stretching the income to make it cover the family needs. This was the boom period for the formation of cooperative societies, many of which were started without any adequate conception of cooperative ideals,

of what benefits could reasonably be expected from a cooperative society, or of business principles. They lasted, on an average, 4.7 years; 9 of those reporting held out for less than one year, 26 for three years, and only 9 for more than ten years.

The years following the boom period of 1919–20 were extremely difficult for even the well-established, experienced cooperators, due to falling prices and the industrial depression with its accompaniment of decreased purchasing power. The year 1923 seems to have been the most disastrous year. Of 750 societies known to have failed during the six-year period 1920 to 1925, the year of failure is known for 190 and of these 72, or nearly two-fifths, failed in 1923.

Most of the societies which failed were small and remained so. Even in the peak year of 1920 they averaged only 222 members and sales of less than $75,000 a year. Only 23 attained a membership of 400 or more and 118 had a membership of 150 or less.

Causes of Failure

The causes of failure as reported by 154 societies and the number of cases in which each cause figured as either sole or contributing cause are as follows:

	Number of cases
Due to members:	
Insufficient capital	78
Lack of patronage and support	13
Lack of cooperative spirit	6
Loss of interest	10
Factional disputes	2
Undue interference in management	2
Total	111
Due to directors:	
Lack of experience	9
Lack of interest and oversight	2
Total	11
Due to manager:	
Inefficient management	18
Overstocking	11
Poor bookkeeping	2
Dishonesty of manager or clerks	7
Total	38
Due to members and manager, jointly:	
Unwise extension of credit	27
Disproportionately high expense of operation	19
Operation on too small a margin	1
Operation on borrowed money	28
Money tied up in fixed assets	13
Total	88
General:	
Declining prices	77
Poor location of store	1
Strike	2
Depression or unemployment in trades of members	4
Fire	2
Purchase of old, slow-turning stock	3
Total	89

It is evident from the above statement that the outstanding causes of failure since 1920 have been insufficient capital with its consequence

of having to operate by borrowing money, unwise extension of credit to members, and declining prices. In other words, while lack of interest, patronage and support by members, inefficient management, and disproportionately high operating expenses were serious defects, financial matters were still more serious. In general, however, it should be noted that the difficulties of these societies were in large part the result of an economic situation (including price and employment conditions) over which the members had no control, although of course there were contributing factors of incompetence.

One society which failed through no fault of its own started with a capital of nearly $15,000. It owed no bills, gave no credit, and had good management. It had been stocked at the peak prices of 1920, however, and the sudden drop in the market, followed by the miners' and railroad strikes, in which its membership was involved, proved too much for the new society to stand.

Estimates of the minimum amount of capital necessary to undertake a cooperative store in 1920 ranged from $1,000 to $5,000, these sums being predicated on the members' absolute loyalty in trading with the store. Of 199 dead societies, 4 had less than $500 paid-in share capital (2 had $250 and $260, respectively, and 1 which operated on the cost-plus plan had $50); 7 had a capital of $500 and less than $1,000; 12 of $1,000 and less than $2,000; and 46 of $2,000 and less than $5,000. In other words, one-third had less than the highest amount set as a safe minimum sum with which to start business. Nearly three-fifths (114 societies) had what might be called a fair amount of capital ($5,000 to $25,000) and less than 10 per cent (16 societies) an ample amount. One society had capital of $130,000, but endeavored with this sum to keep a main store and five branches going, and failed in the attempt; in 1920, after 13 years of operation, its fixed assets formed 72.8 per cent of its capital, its debts 107.7 per cent, and accounts receivable 21.8 per cent.

Insufficient capital and too great extension of credit together form a handicap most difficult to overcome, as is shown in the following statement regarding 12 societies which failed:

RELATION OF DEBTS AND OF ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE TO WORKING CAPITAL OF SPECIFIED SOCIETIES

Society	Date of establishment of society	Amount of working capital [1]	Relation of—	
			Bills and notes payable to capital	Accounts receivable to capital
			Per cent	*Per cent*
Society No. 1	March, 1920	$3,950	104.9	88.9
Society No. 2	March, 1906	13,093	112.9	76.7
Society No. 3	August, 1919	3,700	116.6	22.8
Society No. 4	March, 1911	7,650	96.3	48.7
Society No. 5	November, 1916	1,441	108.7	35.3
Society No. 6	January, 1920	5,000	96.9	36.1
Society No. 7 [2]	January, 1917	2,687	95.0	10.5
Society No. 8 [3]	September, 1916	12,066	95.3	21.9
Society No. 9 [4]	November, 1920	4,623	286.2	73.3
Society No. 10	January, 1918	12,400	107.5	92.1
Society No. 11	July, 1910	6,600	59.6	147.0
Society No. 12	July, 1916	3,010	77.6	80.4

[1] Share and loan capital, reserve, and surplus.
[2] Fixed assets amounted to 174.1 per cent of working capital.
[3] Fixed assets amounted to 161 per cent of working capital.
[4] Fixed assets amounted to 66.3 per cent of working capital.

One defunct western society, not included in the above table (for it gave no credit and therefore did not present that particular cause of failure), was started on the rising market with only $3,000 capital. It invested more than the total amount of its capital in fixtures and real estate, as a result it had to borrow money for operating expenses, and soon its debts represented 193 per cent of its capital. With careful management and loyalty from the membership the organization might have surmounted even these circumstances. But the members' purchases, at the period of highest prices, averaged only $169 per year, each.

An organization in a large middle western city, which had 6,000 members and nearly a million dollars of paid-up capital, spent over $200,000 for organization expenses, had nearly half of its capital in fixed assets, and owed money amounting to nearly three-fourths of its capital. Accounts receivable amounted to only 15.7 per cent, but the stock was turned less than twice a year. This was a "promoted" society not on a strictly Rochdale basis and one in which the members apparently had little to say with regard to the management.

A remarkable instance of decline in cooperative spirit after a bad start is shown by the following report:

> This store was started with a membership of about 40 with a foundation capital of $10 per member and organized as a branch of the older——store. They put up a building worth about $4,000 and bought goods for about $15,000. They had to borrow about $15,000 for a start paying 7 to 8 per cent for same. After running about a year and a half they incorporated and had two men to run it. They had drives now and then to increase membership with a change of membership fees from $50 to $500. Members dropped off now and then. Some of them sold their stock for less than half value. In 1919 and 1920 the organization made a little money, but 1921 and 1922 followed with losses very near just as much, mainly because the help had demanded and gotten a 100 per cent increase in their wages.
>
> During 1922 we tried to sell the business through some wholesale houses, but failed to get an offer. In the beginning of 1923 we succeeded in turning it over to a couple of local boys without any cash payments. As these boys are doing fine, we renewed the lease for another three-year period. By that time I expect that the stockholders will get their money back with interest at from 3 to 4 per cent per year for the 20-year period they have had their money invested.

Indifference and utter lack of recognition of the responsibility of the members to the welfare of the society are illustrated by a report from a mining community: "The by-laws called for 6 per cent on capital stock and the balance of earnings on purchases, credit being extended up to 80 per cent of the stock held. The small stockholders soon learned they could deal 75 per cent out and still get all of the earnings and have 6 per cent on capital."

A society which was forced out of business by losses due to falling prices sold its real estate and stock but was still in debt:

> Assets of the company failed to pay indebtedness by $4,230, with was partly made up by about 20 stockholders who paid their proportionate share of deficit, $36.78 each. The balance has been paid in greater part by directors who had indorsed notes of the company. Amount paid by directors will be about $400 each. About 90 stockholders refuse to pay anything.

That the two societies whose reports are quoted below failed is not surprising. The wonder is that they lasted as long as they did.

> The members raised about $15,000 in money to start with. It was started along about 1917 or 1918 when prices were at their highest and the first of a long series of mistakes was made when it bought out one of the local stores here, as it was found out later that everything was not only invoiced at a very high

price, but many articles were invoiced over and over again, so that it probably lost about $3,000 in its first deal. It was also found out afterwards that the man we had employed as manager was taking a salary from the man from whom we bought the store.

Another cause, or rather a continuing cause, was the difficulty of getting anybody with the capacity for management.

Another cause of failure was too liberal credit. Our by-laws provided that only the stockholders should receive credit and then only up to 75 per cent of the value of their stock, upon the stock being hypothecated with the company; this part of the by-laws was never lived up to and at the final wind-up we had probably two or three thousand dollars of bad bills which never had been collected.

Another cause of failure was inability to control stealing from within; I mean by the association's own employees. While, of course, there is no way of saying what this item amounted to, it undoubtedly amounted to several thousand dollars.

So far as I know, this is the only concern in this community engaged in the mercantile business that has ever failed so completely, as for many years this has been a growing community and, as I know from an acquaintance of 35 years, I have never known of a mercantile business failing that had capable management and, as I see it now, the only way to get capable management is to have somebody in who has an interest, preferably a controlling interest, to make it good. At one time I was quite interested in cooperative societies and believed in the principle of such societies, which I now certainly do not.

The second society went into business in 1920 with about $14,000 in the treasury.

They bought around $4,500 worth of goods to start with, and within a month from the time they bought same they could have bought it $1,000 cheaper as the prices were at peak and were toppling at the time. They bought two one-ton trucks that cost them something like $1,800 or more, and within four months they could have bought them for around $800 or $1,000. In starting in they bought the highest-priced fixtures they could find, and had a bunch of clerks that made worlds of errors, and of course all errors that were against the customers they heard from, but the errors that were in favor of the customer they never heard from and the store lost. The clerks pilfered and did as they pleased. They couldn't get a manager that would take the interest they should have. They bought everything in sight whether they could use it or not. Worlds of perishables were lost.

They had something like 350 stockholders. They thought because they had stock in the store that they owned the works, and would call up and browbeat the help and would not pay their accounts, and make claims against the store that were simply outrageous, and would go to the corner grocery rather than buy from their own store, and finally the store got to a place where they owed about $3,300 and I was appointed chairman of liquidating committee to wind up the affairs. The stockholders lost everything, those that didn't owe the store, but there were a lot of them that owed and we couldn't make it out of them. All debts were paid 100 cents on the dollar, but very little more was ever collected.

I was a director for about two years, the latter part of the time, but couldn't get the directors to realize that the store was failing.

Columbus Unemployment Survey

ASIDE from the very great local interest of the report on unemployment in Columbus, Ohio, 1921 to 1925, by Frederick E. Croxton, published as Bulletin No. 409 of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the study is of special value because there have been so few investigations made of actual unemployment. Indexes as to conditions of the labor market are at present largely dependent upon volume of employment statistics and ratios of applicants for jobs to workers placed by employment offices or to jobs available.

Surveys of the present kind over a series of years, which show definitely the unemployment situation in representative sections of a city or town, constitute a scientific basis for the formulation of plans for stabilizing employment and for other improvements in industrial and social conditions.

Columbus has large areas of native white population and only a few negro districts. Immigrant populations predominate in a comparatively small number of districts. The author aimed to include a fair sample of the wage-earning population of the city. He cautions, however, that in drawing deductions from these statistics it must be remembered that the findings for each year represent only a particular period—approximately the last week in October. The 1921 survey covered slightly over 10 per cent of the employed persons 18 years of age and over in Columbus. The numbers included in the succeeding four years varied somewhat.

Approximately 50 per cent of the persons enumerated were in the manufacturing and mechanical industries, over 25 per cent in the trade and transportation group, 10 per cent in domestic and personal service, slightly over 7 per cent were self-employed, and the remainder were included in other general industrial groups.

In the individual industries the heaviest percentages of enumerated persons were found in iron and steel and their products, railway and express, building trades, and wholesale and retail trade.

Whether the number of persons working full time, part time, or idle be considered, or whether the proportion of employment and idleness in the population enumerated be taken as a criterion, the greatest amount of employment was present in 1923, which was followed in order by 1922, 1925, 1924, and 1921, and the largest amount of unemployment existed in 1921, with 1924, 1925, 1922, and 1923, each showing, respectively, somewhat less. If only that idleness reported as due to slack work be considered the order of importance of the years becomes 1921, 1924, 1925, 1923, and 1922.

Employment Status

IN EACH of the five years for the districts included in the survey the effort was made to ascertain whether each person (male or female) 18 years of age or over was "(1) working full time; (2) working part time, and if so what fraction of the usual full time for the industry in which the individual was engaged; or (3) idle, and if so, how long continuously at the time of the visit and for what reason."

The following table shows the percentage of those of both sexes on full time, part time, or who were idle for the five years under review:

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF ALL PERSONS ENUMERATED, 1921 TO 1925

Employment status	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Employed—					
Full time	76.5	86.2	87.5	79.3	82.4
Part time:					
Two-thirds but less than full time	2.5	2.2	2.6	5.0	4.3
One-half but less than two-thirds time	5.8	3.2	2.9	4.9	3.9
One-third but less than one-half time	1.2	.7	.6	1.7	1.0
Less than one-third time	.6	.5	.1	.5	.5
Total, part time	10.1	6.6	6.2	12.1	9.7
Idle	13.4	7.1	6.3	8.7	7.9
Total, both sexes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The table below shows the percentages of those unemployed from different causes, slack work being the predominant cause in all the periods covered except 1922. In that year 34.1 per cent of the unemployment was due to sickness and 28.2 per cent to slack work. Even in 1923, however, those unemployed because of sickness constituted 33.8 per cent of the total idle—only slightly below the 37.4 per cent idle in that year because of slack work. Referring to the low percentage of unemployment in 1921 because of old age or retirement, it is thought probable that during the acute industrial situation in that year a number of elderly persons took temporary work because the regular wage earners in the family were unemployed.

CAUSE OF UNEMPLOYMENT OF PERSONS ENUMERATED, BOTH SEXES, 1921 TO 1925

[Includes only persons reporting as to cause of unemployment]

Cause of unemployment	Per cent of total unemployed				
	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Strike	----------	18.1	0.4	0.2	----------
Slack work	76.9	28.2	37.4	54.3	42.2
Sickness	14.4	34.1	33.8	24.1	31.1
Old age or retirement	8.5	18.3	23.5	15.9	21.5
Miscellaneous	.2	1.3	4.9	5.4	5.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Full-time employment, part-time employment, and idleness for the five-year period covered varied more for all males than for all females enumerated. This is partly attributable to the fact that the males were not so largely engaged in salaried occupations as were the females. For male heads of households, however, the fluctuations over the five years in the percentages of those employed part time and those who were unemployed are greater than for females.

The average employment status for all males enumerated for the five periods was as follows: "82.3 per cent employed full time; 3.4 per cent employed two-thirds but less than full time; 3.8 per cent employed half but less than two-thirds time; 0.8 per cent employed one-third but less than half time; 0.3 per cent employed less than one-third time; 9.4 per cent idle." The greatest divergences from these averages of full-time employment occurred in 1921 when 75.1 per cent were fully employed and in 1923 when 87.4 were on full time. The record for unemployment in 1921 was 14.6 per cent, while in 1923 only 6.8 per cent were idle, which, it will be noted, is considerably lower than the percentage for the five-year period.

The average status of employment for all enumerated females was: "83.8 per cent employed full time; 3.1 per cent employed two-thirds but less than full time; 5.3 per cent employed half but less than two-thirds time; 1.9 per cent employed one-third but less than half time; 0.9 per cent employed less than one-third time; 5 per cent idle." The percentage of females employed on full time for the separate years differed most from the average for the five years in 1924 and 1923, being respectively, 81.3 and 87.6 per cent, while the unemployed females in the individual years ranged from 3 per cent in 1922 to 7.9 per cent in 1921.

Employment Fluctuations in Certain Industries

NOT one of the five more important industry groups exhibits throughout the five years the highest proportion of employment or the greatest amount of idleness, although retail and wholesale trade was in the lead in full-time employment for the first four of the five years, the percentages of persons so employed being more than 89 per cent in 1921, just under 93 per cent in 1922, 94.7 per cent in 1923, and 92.7 per cent in 1924. Of these five groups, the industries showing the largest proportion of idle persons were, in 1921, iron and steel, 26.8 per cent; in 1922, railway and express, 13.2 per cent; in 1923, iron and steel, slightly over 8 per cent; and in 1924 and 1925, the building trades, with 11.8 per cent and 12.3 per cent, respectively.

Considering all the industry groups, paper, printing, and publishing, which in 1922 and 1923 nearly equaled retail and wholesale trade in the percentage of persons on full time, was in this respect ahead of all industry groups except professional service in 1925, with a record of 92.8 per cent of the persons in that industry on full-time employment. In the same year, except for agriculture, the building trades (wage earners and contractors) were reported as having the greatest relative number of idle persons, 12.3 per cent.

In the matter of full-time employment the trade and transportation group was more stable for the 5-year period than the manufacturing and mechanical group of industries, the percentage of persons on full time in trade and transportation ranging from 88.3 per cent in 1921 to 93.4 per cent in 1923, and in the manufacturing and mechanical industries group, from 72.2 per cent in 1921 to 88.8 per cent in 1922. The unemployed in trade and transportation constituted 3.5 per cent in 1923 and 7.4 per cent in 1922 and in the manufacturing and mechanical group, 4.6 per cent in 1922 and 13.9 per cent in the previous year.

Trend Toward Stabilization of Employment

THE variety in the industries of Columbus has a tendency to level employment conditions affecting the city as a whole. The fact also that these industries are to a great extent owned locally makes for a very definite sense of responsibility among employers and has resulted in the adoption by several important establishments of progressive methods for regularizing employment. This policy is reflected in the notable amount of part-time employment in 1924, a number of establishments having held a large percentage of their working force on a part-time basis rather than a smaller percentage on full-time work.

Value of Definite Unemployment Statistics

WHILE it is evident that not all of the unemployment disclosed in a survey of this kind represents actual need, yet the continuing study of conditions from year to year, especially when the data include the causes and duration of idleness, is a genuine social service. Through such service, as already suggested, communities, particularly cities like Columbus with highly coordinated social activities, may outline more intelligently their economic programs and estimate more closely for their coming requirements.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS

Adaptation of Negroes to Northern Industrial Conditions

THE research director of the National Urban League, Charles S. Johnson, has an article in Industrial Psychology for June, 1926, on "How the negro fits in northern industries," in which after dealing with the history and causes of the northward migration of the negro, he gives a brief summary of the good and bad features of the present situation. The migration is fundamentally an economic movement, he considers, and he points out that the same causes produced among the white population of the South even a greater tendency than among the colored to seek new fields. "Actually, their rate of mobility was calculated by the census at 20 per cent as compared with 16 per cent for the negroes." Other conditions offered strong inducements to the negroes for their mass move to the North, but these were, after all, only secondary motives.

Their entrance into industrial employment could hardly have been brought about but for the shortage of white labor due first to the war, and later to the restriction of immigration. At first, their unfamiliarity with the conditions of northern industry put them at a disadvantage, but they soon proved themselves sufficiently adaptable to make their way, "and of necessity they are being advanced to fill the gaps in semiskilled and skilled positions created by promotion, retirement, and death." The negro's ability to speak and understand English has been one point to his credit in the large plants, his strength and general docility have added to his acceptability, and the fact that in general he has not been unionized has counted in his favor.

Of the problems precipitated by the arrival of the migrants in large numbers, the article dwells especially upon housing, health, and unions. The difficulties of the housing situation are much the same whatever the particular locality under consideration. The newcomers are generally crowded into former residence sections, near what have become the business parts of the city. Because of the location, the property is too valuable for the negroes to be able to purchase it to any extent; and because of the probability that the houses will soon have to give way to the encroachments of business, the owners do not care to go to the expense of keeping them in repair, so that the tenants suffer from a double disadvantage. Moreover, any attempt on their part to move into other residence districts meets with keen hostility, and they find themselves with increasing numbers confined to a strictly limited area, with the natural results that rents are raised, lodgers are taken to meet the cost of the higher rents, congestion grows greater, and normal family life is seriously disturbed.

In regard to health, the situation is hopeful. The greater severity of the climate and the change from rural to urban conditions at

first told heavily on the newcomers, but they seem to have adapted themselves very quickly to the change. Under the better sanitary regulations of northern cities, with the benefit of hospital treatment which they could not get in the rural South, and with the improved standards of living which they have quickly adopted, the mortality of negroes is now actually showing a decrease. The studies of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., which has more than a million and a half of negro policyholders, show that between 1911 and 1922 there was a decrease of 22 per cent in the death rate. "In Chicago, while the population increase was 182 per cent between 1910 and 1920, the death rate declined 17 per cent, and in New York 12.5 per cent."

In regard to the unions the situation is dubious. Some unions definitely exclude colored workers, some permit the formation of separate negro locals; some give them a qualified form of membership; and some admit them on precisely the same terms as white workers. Where this last is the case, the negroes seem to take to unionization very readily.

Of the 5,386 negro longshoremen in New York City, about 5,000 are organized. Of the 735 negro carpenters, 400 are members of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners. Of the 2,275 semiskilled clothing workers, practically all are members of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. The musicians are 50 per cent organized. The great preponderance of negro jobs is still in lines which are not organized. The porters, laundresses (outside of laundries), and servants have no organization. The negroes listed as painters are not in the painters' union, many of them being merely whitewashers. The tailors are in large part cleaners and pressers. The waiters and elevator tenders (except female) are poorly organized.

In considering the outlook for the future the author points out, as one of the most promising features, that the breaking up of the black belt in the South will, by weakening the fear of negro domination, lessen the violence of prejudice and lead to better relations between the races. "The creation of more than 800 interracial bodies in counties of the South is an evidence of altered sentiment in the section." Moreover, it will also mean the breaking up of the plantation system, and should benefit both white and negro tenants by making available large fertile tracts of land for more intensive individual cultivation as small farms.

As other probable developments, the author sees an increase in the number of skilled workers among the negro migrants as they gain industrial experience. The housing problem may improve through the tendency of some industries to desert the large cities and to carry their workers with them. The cultural contacts to which the newcomers are daily exposed, when they do not merely live in transplanted southern colonies, have already raised the standard of living and this process is apt to be cumulative. The rapid growth of northern industries demands workers at a rate beyond the capacity of the native-born-white population to supply, so that the migration from the South to satisfy this need will probably continue for years to come, to the advantage of both sections.

The realignment of relations with the white population will doubtless be accompanied at first with conflicts more or less severe, as for example, in the seven or eight riots which developed around the first sudden contacts of South and North, but the ultimate relations, there is warrant for believing, will be both more permanent and more mutually tolerable.

Conditions in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry of New York City

THE Governor's Advisory Commission appointed in 1924 to study conditions in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry recently made its final report and recommendations.[1]

Improvement of Conditions in the Industry

A GENERATION ago the cloak, suit, and skirt industry was "a sweatshop industry, characterized by the home labor of women and children, by unregulated hours, and by absence of sanitary standards with an almost total lack of organization, and with abuses too numerous to be described. The building up of cohesive forces and institutions was most sorely needed and in a real measure it has been achieved."

Collective agreements regulate the relations between the union (the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, including in its membership about 90 per cent of the workers in the industry) and the employers (the Industrial Council, with 184 members representing more than 70 per cent of the "inside" production, the Merchants' Ladies' Garment Association with 127 members, representing fully 75 per cent of the jobbing business, and the American Cloak and Suit Manufacturers' Association, with 847 members, representing more than 70 per cent of the submanufacturing business). An effective machinery has been built up for the settlement of disputes and during the past two years an impartial chairman has had final authority on questions arising under the collective agreements. As an indication of the effectiveness of this machinery in preserving amicable relations in the industry, the report cites the fact that more than 95 per cent of the complaints are adjusted in the shops. Only the more difficult questions are referred to the impartial chairman and in every instance his decision has been accepted.

The joint board of sanitary control was established in 1910 as a joint enterprise of workers and employers for improving sanitary conditions in the industry.

Its methods of inspection and of research, and its efforts to prevent accidents and disease have served as models in this country and elsewhere. To the credit of the different factors in the industry be it said that, although the past fifteen years have been marked by dissensions which at times reached the point of industrial warfare, they never lost interest in the work of this board, but continued it without interruption under able impartial management and with increased facilities and greater opportunities for usefulness to the entire industry.

At the suggestion of the Governor's Advisory Commission the system of "fictitious discounts" has been abolished, the sanitary label has been adopted, and an unemployment fund established, supported by both workers and employers.

Evils of the Jobbing-Submanufacturing System

THE industry is now confronted by a problem which has been gradually increasing in seriousness—the problem of "outside" production. The commission has been making a special study of this situation. It finds that due to the suddenly changing styles, the

[1] New York. Governor's Advisory Commission in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry, New York City. Final recommendations, May 20, 1926. [New York], 1926.

multiplicity of the producing units in the industry, and the higher costs of materials and trimming, revolutionary changes have taken place in the retailing methods. Whereas the retailers formerly placed a large proportion of their orders in advance, now they wait till the last moment in order to insure getting styles that have established their popularity in the current season. This has led to intense production during short periods, followed by months of depression; and this in turn has caused significant structural changes in the industry.

The industry had gradually changed from a sweat shop trade with much home work to one in which the manufacturing was done mainly in large "inside shops" under employers who were directly responsible for both manufacturing and marketing the product. Gradually, however, these manufacturers have in turn been displaced by so-called "jobbing-manufacturing,"[2] which has developed "partly as a device to escape labor responsibilities and partly as an adaptation to the newer methods of retail buying."

An inside manufacturer creates styles, employs a permanent complement of workers, and seeks, so far as possible, to get advance orders from the retailers, placing his chief emphasis upon quality of production. The jobber in the cloak and suit industry differs from the jobber in other industries. Instead of merely being a wholesale distributor, he is an indirect manufacturer. He purchases his materials and then farms out the production to an elastic and shifting group of small submanufacturers, who follow his instruction as to style. His emphasis is on mass production and on selling finished garments from the racks. While, through owning the cloth and through directing the flow of orders into the submanufacturing shops, the jobbers are the real capitalists in this large branch of the manufacturing process, they do not directly employ labor, and consider themselves free from responsibility for labor standards. Incidentally they have no incentive for lengthening the season, for the manufacturing overhead is carried by the multitude of small manufacturers, each with a little loft and a few machines.

The submanufacturers, on the other hand, usually have no contact whatever with the retail trade. Their outlet is through the jobbers. They can not create a demand for their production. They have, for the most part, not enough capital to purchase materials. They seek work and materials from the jobbers. In soliciting orders from the jobbers they compete with each other fiercely. This competition is intensified by another underlying condition. Any one with a few hundred dollars of capital can rent space in a small loft, get together a handful of workers who have been idle during the dull season, and throw himself into the competition for orders from the jobbers. Literally hundreds of such small shops are started, and hundreds are abandoned every year.

There is a great deal of waste under this system. "Counting all the partners in the submanufacturing shops, there are several thousand men whose energies are mostly spent in going from one jobber to another in search of orders." Their shops are too small for well-organized systematic production methods, their capital is small, and hundreds of them fail each year, leaving their creditors in the lurch. The jobbers suffer increasingly through cancellation of orders and return of goods because of faulty workmanship, etc. But the greatest burden falls upon the workers through shortened periods and "substandard conditions" of employment.

The competition in the market in the securing of orders throws upon the submanufacturers a cruel pressure out of all proportion to their powers of resistance.

Were this pressure felt only by the manufacturers the situation would not be so serious, and it might work its own cure through discouraging the perpetual opening up of new shops.

[2] This has progressed to such a point that now about three-fourths of the production is controlled by this system.

But the fact is that a large proportion of the submanufacturers succeed in shifting the burden onto the workers. The shops being small, there is a comparatively close relation between the firm and the workers. When work is scarce, as it usually is except for a few weeks in each season, the workers are told that, in order to meet the exigencies of price competition and to bring some work into the shop, they must enter into secret arrangements contrary to the minimum labor standards which have been agreed upon, and which are pretty successfully enforced in the larger shops of the inside manufacturers.

These concessions by the workers take various forms. They chiefly involve wages, hours, rates of pay for overtime, work on holidays, and the substitution of piecework for pay by the hour. All this is done without the knowledge of the union officials and is frequently concealed in the books of the firm. Incidentally, it subjects the inside manufacturers to such unfair competition as tends to drive out of legitimate manufacturing into jobbing all except those producing garments of the most exclusive and expensive styles.

Studies made for the commission show that workers in the submanufacturing shops had during 1925 only 26.8 full weeks of employment, as compared with 37.4 full weeks in the inside shops, while the average yearly earnings in the two types of shops were $1,374.90 and $1,750, respectively.

In determining the relationship between jobber, submanufacturer, and workers we should be concerned not so much with the form as with the substance. By whatever name he may call himself, the jobber controls working conditions; he controls employment, and that element of control imposes upon him the responsibility that he shall so conduct his business that proper working standards may be upheld instead of undermined, and that employment may be stabilized instead of demoralized.

The present method of doing business invites the splitting up of production units to a point which defies any real degree of supervision by the institutions in the industry, and which makes impossible the maintenance of any satisfactory standards of employment.

To secure this end the commission recommends that the number of submanufacturers with whom the jobber be allowed to deal be limited, the jobber selecting at determined intervals the particular submanufacturers to handle his production, and binding himself not to give work to any others.

Because of the fact that the inside shops maintain better sanitary conditions, higher rates of pay, and longer periods of employment, though often subjected to unfair competition from the jobbers, the commission recommends that there be "some relaxation in the application of existing regulations in regard to the tenure of employment." Greater encouragement should be given to the inside system of production and to larger productive units throughout the industry. "Firms will be more willing to increase the number of their workers if they have some assurance that they can make reasonable changes later on in response to the needs of their business." The commission suggests, therefore, that all such shops having 35 or more regular employees be given the right to reorganize their shops once a year at the beginning of a season. Not more than 10 per cent of the workers should be displaced, workers dropped should be given a week's pay or a week's notice, there should be no unfair discrimination, and an endeavor should be made to place the displaced workers through the employment bureau. "This right should be accorded only to establishments which are parties to the collective agreements and under the jurisdiction of the impartial machinery."

Recommendations

THE commission presents for the consideration of the industry six suggestions:

1. That the impartial chairman be given even greater powers than at present, and that he be given an accountant, permanently attached to his staff, to make investigations in any establishment in the industry, to see that the contracts are being carried out.

2. (*a*) That the system of contribution of submanufacturers to the unemployment fund be changed so that the jobbers' contributions will again be paid through the submanufacturers at the same rates as are paid by inside manufacturers. In 1925, because of the disproportionate payments from the fund to workers in the outside shops, it was decided to increase the contributions of the outside employers to 3 per cent, the payments to be made directly by the jobbers instead of by the subcontractors, who then collected from the jobbers. The change, however, did not work well. It has been found that since that time the jobbers' contributions have aggregated considerably less than those of the inside manufacturers though their volume of business is much greater.

(*b*) That an employment office be established under the direction of the trustees of the unemployment insurance fund.

3. That the minimum wage rates for the various crafts be increased as follows:

	Present scale	New scale
Cloak and dress cutters	$44.00	$50.00
Sample makers	36.00	42.00
Jacket, coat, reefer, and dress operators	50.00	54.00
Piece tailors	43.00	46.00
Reefer, jacket, and coat finishers	41.00	44.00
Jacket, coat, and reefer finishers' helpers	32.00	36.00
Jacket, coat, reefer, and dress upper pressers	42.00	47.00
Jacket, coat, reefer, and dress under pressers	37.50	42.00
Cloak bushelers	25.00	30.00
Bushelmen who also do pinning, marking, and general work on garments	34.00	38.00
Skirt cutters	39.50	45.00
Skirt operators	48.00	52.00
Skirt upper pressers	38.00	42.00
Skirt under pressers	37.50	42.00
Skirt basters	25.00	28.00
Skirt finishers	20.50	25.00
Drapers	27.50	30.00
Begraders on skirts	32.00	35.00
Girls' begraders	27.50	30.00

4. That, in the interests of the unionization of the industry (which is "highly desirable"), the existing contracts be amended so as to afford opportunities for speedier examination when any party to the agreement files a complaint in regard to dealings with nonunion shops. "Consideration should be given in this connection to the advisability of a joint committee, headed by the impartial chairman, and charged with the duty of checking up on the sending of work through unauthorized and substandard channels."

The principle of unionization in the cloak and suit industry is not challenged. All employers and jobbers have agreed in their contracts with the union that they will deal only with union shops and union workers.

During 1924, although there were some complaints of nonunion manufacturing, only about 15 per cent of the total production was nonunion and this was mainly of lower-priced garments. During the past year, however, conditions have admittedly become worse.

The percentage of nonunion manufacturing has greatly increased and this has had serious effects. It is highly desirable, as all factors admit, that nonunion manufacturing be reduced and, if possible, entirely eliminated.

5. That more effective methods be taken to enlarge the use of the prosanis label, which is the guaranty that the garment was made under healthful conditions; and that there be more adequate provision for inspection and a system of penalties for evasion or misuse of the label.

6. That the bureau of research, constituted to aid the commission in its studies, be permanently continued as an adjunct of the unemployment insurance fund and financed partly by contributions from independent manufacturers, submanufacturers, and jobbers in proportion to the amount of business done by them, but the major part to be paid by the independents. This bureau would make investigations and would gradually build up a body of information about the industry which "will enable problems of unemployment, productivity, and wages to be dealt with intelligently."

The recommendations made above set forth in general terms the adjustments and modifications of existing relationships that the commission hopes will be agreed to in the new contracts. These recommendations should not be considered as isolated remedies for different situations; the commission desires that they be considered as a whole—as a program which, if accepted, will effect a general betterment of existing conditions in the industry.

As its name indicates, the governor's commission has been an "advisory" body; it has not arbitrated, but has mediated. The recommendations above given are urged upon the parties in interest with the hope that the fairness and good sense of the proposals will commend themselves to them and lead to acceptance. If the recommendations are accepted in principle, the commission will be willing if so requested, to act as an arbitration body, and to decide on the specific matters which should be embodied in contracts to make the recommendations effective—the commission's decision on these points to be binding on the parties which have agreed to the arbitration. Otherwise, the commission feels that with the submission of this, its final report, its labors are completed.

Vacations With Pay for Production Workers[1]

A SURVEY of the vacation policies for production workers in factories, stores, and miscellaneous establishments in Cincinnati, Ohio, has been made recently by the Consumer's League of that city. Of 272 firms replying to a preliminary questionnaire, 145 stated that they had no vacation policy, 16 refused information, and 111 reported that paid vacations are given to all or part of their production force. The establishments granting vacations include 52 factories, 50 stores, and 9 miscellaneous establishments, and 15,948 of the 23,729 employees of these companies were entitled to receive vacations at the time the study was completed. Sixty-seven of these firms grant vacations to the entire production force and 44 to a part only of these workers.

The length of vacation varies from one day to two weeks, one week being given in the majority of cases. The minimum period of service required in order to establish eligibility for vacations ranges

[1] For other articles on this subject see Labor Review, May, 1926, pp. 1–7; June, 1926, pp. 41–45.

from 1 week to 10 years; only 13 of the establishments, however, require service of more than 1 year before a vacation is granted. Although there is a minimum service requirement in all cases, the length of the vacation is not as a rule graduated according to length of service, as less than a third of the firms reporting on this point stated that they have a graduated scale. Of the 32 firms which stated that the length of vacation depends on the length of service, the minimum length of vacation given is less than a week in 7 cases and 1 week in 25 cases, while the maximum vacation is 2 weeks in 30 cases and 4 weeks in 2 cases. In the latter instance service of 10 years or more is required and women having that length of service are given six weeks.

In general, the vacations granted by these firms are given during the summer months, although in some cases employees are allowed to take their vacation at any season of the year which they choose. Several factories reported shutdowns during which time employees entitled to vacations are paid, and one store reported that it closes for a week twice a year when all employees are paid for each period. Another store had tried the shutdown vacation for two years but had decided to discontinue it and allow the employees to take their vacation when they please.

The time of paying for the vacation is important from the standpoint of the employee. Of 86 companies replying to this question, 52 reported that they pay before the vacation; 17 after; 10 when the employee wishes; 5 on the usual pay day; and 1 firm, giving 2 weeks, pays part before and part after the vacation, while another retains the entire amount until the first week in December.

The policy in regard to giving pay for legal holidays varies among the firms having vacation plans. Fifty-four companies reported that thay paid for from 3 to 7 legal holidays in addition to the vacation allowed, 4 reported no pay for such holidays, while in 53 cases the number of holidays paid for was not specified.

A number of these companies have been granting vacations for many years, one store stating that it originated its vacation plan 66 years ago. The majority of both stores and factories, however, have adopted the practice within the last few years.

Although the majority of the employers interviewed failed to express their personal opinions regarding the results of giving vacations, a number regarded them as of importance in reducing turnover and in improving the morale, the health of the workers, and the quality of work and efficiency, or in increasing loyalty to the firm.

Sixth French Congress on Family Allowances[1]

THE Sixth National Annual Congress of the family-allowance funds of France met in the Mediterranean region May 10–13, 1926. Sessions were held at Marseille, Toulon, Cannes, and Nice, with some 300 persons in attendance.

Various reports made at this convention indicate that within the last year the family-allowance movement in France has further

[1] La Journée Industrielle, Paris, May 12 (p. 1), May 15 (p. 1), and May 16–17 (pp. 1 and 5), 1926.

expanded. Not only have the number of funds and the rates of allowances increased, but the funds are making further progress through the creation of additional benefit features such as sick insurance and by the adherence of new corporations, notably in agriculture and the liberal professions.

Growth of the family-allowance system.—Among the statistics presented by the secretary of the central committee on family allowances are the following showing the extension of the payment of benefits through family-allowance funds:

	As reported June, 1925	As reported May, 1926
Number of funds	176	195
Number of establishments	11, 200	14, 000
Number of workers	1, 210, 000	1, 300, 000
Annual amount disbursed--francs[2]	160, 000, 000	200, 000, 000

The secretary estimates that if the disbursements of private employers who are not members of family-allowance funds are added to the above totals for May, 1926, they would be increased to 700,000,000 francs among 2,600,000 workers. It is also estimated that the inclusion of the allowances paid to the personnel of public administrations would augment the annual distribution to 1,152,000,000 francs over a population of 3,600,000 persons. This expansion is said to be due not only to the "spontaneous attraction of the funds" but also to the legal obligation to pay family allowances to those employed on public works.

It was reported to the Congress that the number of agricultural funds had increased from 16 to 27 and also that the National Association of the Notaries of France was studying, with the purpose of adoption, a general scheme of social insurance. The first step has already been taken in the institution of family allowances by the Seine Chamber of Notaries.

Family-allowance rates.—In general the family-allowance rates of the funds have been recently increased not only relatively because of the depreciation of the franc but also in actual value. Because of the revision of a large number of scales it was not possible, M. Bonvoisin stated, to estimate the present general average for all funds but for the 30 principal funds the following monthly averages were presented:

	Francs
1 child	25. 23
2 children	63. 02
3 children	109. 47
4 children	240. 34
5 children	318. 00

Family allowances and the birth rate.—A statistical inquiry made by Colonel Guillermin, director of the iron and metal fund of Lyon, indicated that for the population included under the family allowance-funds there was an increase of 6 per cent in the birth rate from 1924 to 1925. In comparison with the most recent general statistics for the French population, the birth rate among the families of the funds is 25 per cent higher. It has been pointed out, however, in previous discussions of the effect of family allowances on the birth

[2] Franc at par=19.3 cents; exchange value on May 15, 1926=3.02 cents.

rate that the reaching of solid conclusions in this matter is next to impossible.

Hygiene activities of the funds.—The attention of the Congress was drawn to the notable and increasing activities of the funds for prenatal and postnatal hygiene, the medical supervision of infants and adolescents, and the extension of fresh-air work.

The number of children sent by the funds to vacation colonies or placed in families shows a recent marked increase and the results secured are reported as more satisfactory. A special tribute was paid at the Congress to zeal and delicacy of the funds' social service visitors.

Sick allowances.—There are now 10 funds granting sick allowances and 14 centers which have either already decided upon the establishment of sick allowances or have them in contemplation.

Housing.—The possibilities of a new departure in welfare work for family-allowance funds were suggested by a report of certain facilities extended to workers by the Armentières fund. Through this organization, it was reported, in a few months 300 gardens have been apportioned and 10 houses constructed and turned over to their proprietors, due to a system of loans which has made the work possible without the large capital ordinarily required.

Other reports.—The president of the committee of family-allowance funds of the Mediterranean region spoke on the payment of these grants in that section of the country.

A report dealing with the compulsory principle in the matter of family allowances was presented to a general assembly of the Union of Compensation Funds of the National Federation of Building and Public Works. At the same meeting a resolution was passed that the obligation of making these grants "be generalized and imposed by law on all employers with the least possible delay, and that the service of allowances be assured by all funds now existing or to be created, such funds being administered by employers."

The founder of the agricultural fund of Bu emphasized the problem involved in the membership in funds of agricultural employers with small holdings and few workers.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR

Wages and Labor Conditions in Louisiana

THE following table showing wages and hours of labor of unskilled and semiskilled workers in Louisiana in 1922–23 and 1924–25 are taken from the thirteenth biennial report of the department of labor and industrial statistics of that State.

DAILY WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR OF COMMON AND SEMISKILLED WORKERS, 1922–23 AND 1924–25

Industry	1922–23		1924–25	
	Hours per day	Wages per day	Hours per day	Wages per day
Canning industries	10	$1.25	10	$1.25
Clothing workers	10	1.25	10	1.25
Cottonseed products	12	2.00	12	2.25
Ice, light, and bottling	10	1.75	10	1.50
Lumbering	10	2.00	10	1.75
Naval stores	10	2.00	10	1.75
Oil-field workers	10	3.25	10	3.50
Rice-mill workers	12	2.00	12	2.25
Sugar-cane and farm workers	10	1.25	10	1.25

According to the above statistical report no change is shown in 1924–25 as compared with 1922–23 in the wage rates for canning, clothing, sugar-cane, and farm workers. The rates, however, for workers in cottonseed products and for oil-field and rice-mill labor were 25 cents higher for the later period while the wages in ice and light plants, bottling works, and lumbering were 25 cents lower in 1924–25 than in 1922–23.

The problem of farm labor.—Because of a number of complaints about the shortage of farm labor in Louisiana the commissioner of labor and industrial statistics made a personal investigation in various sections of the State in order to establish the facts in the matter. He visited certain localities where the unemployed ordinarily gather and found substantial numbers of men and women who had no regular employment. When cotton pickers were greatly needed there were hundreds of men and women idle in north Louisiana and a similar situation was found to exist in the rice belt and "sugar bowl" districts during the rice harvesting and cane grinding season. Man power was plentiful. Industrial employers were actually turning away would-be workers but at the same time agricultural help was scarce. Among the objections of the workers to farm labor are the irregular wages, there being no legally established pay days and in many cases the hands hired during the harvesting or grinding season are paid only for the days worked. The long waits for money necessitate trading at a company store or at a commissary on the premises which is frequently leased to an outside party. Either ar-

rangement means nigh prices, especially in the latter instance, as the lessee contends he must have "ample returns to pay rental or share the profit with the property owner, which they claim is sometimes exacted."

The workers further complained they sometimes needed cash to meet an emergency, but because of the long period between pay days they are forced to buy a trade book on the commissary and these books are discounted, this being done by someone on the premises, but not supposed to be directly connected with the employer's business, since the law prohibits this being done, and the law also prohibits forcing the workers to trade at any designated place, but confronted with these conditions, an end is accomplished in doing indirectly that which the law prohibits being done directly.

Other causes of the farm labor shortage are undiversified crops, the exodus of young men from the country, and the employment of negroes in certain occupations in the cities in preference to white men.

Because of the difficulty in securing native agricultural laborers several thousand Mexicans were brought into the State. This, however, is not a new policy and the results have not been encouraging. The Mexicans are reported "as not altogether acceptable in agricultural pursuits." Moreover, most of these imported people soon leave the farms for railroad work or city employment.

Unpaid wages.—Repeated appeals have been made to the State legislature that the commissioner of labor and industrial statistics or his representative be authorized "to investigate and adjust unpaid wage claims" without expense to the claimant. In the report under review recommendation is made for legislation along this line. For the purpose of securing evidence to justify the enactment of such a law, a record of complaints concerning unpaid wages (ranging from 50 cents to $7) was kept for a period of more than four months. The amount aggregated about $8,000.

Child-labor legislation.—Louisiana's unprogressiveness in the matter of child-labor legislation is emphasized by the commissioner of labor and industrial statistics, who points out that his State is one of 18 that do not legally require certificates of physical fitness for employment; one of 19 States that do not require "certain standards of educational advancement" and one of 4 States allowing children to be employed 10 hours per day and 60 hours per week.

English Views of American Wage Policies

TWO recent reports upon conditions in the United States as compared with those in England have attracted much attention in the English press. The first was made by two members of the Federation of British Industries who visited this country in the autumn of 1925 and published a brief summary[1] of what they found, dwelling especially upon the prosperity of the United States. The second was issued by two engineers, Messrs. Lloyd and Austin, who at about the same time made an intensive tour of some of our industrial regions, "with the object of wresting from America the secret

[1] Federation of British Industries. Report on visit to the United States of America, by F. Vernon Willey and Guy Locock. London, [1925?]. 12 pp.

of her rapid industrial progress," and have published their conclusions under the title "The Secret of High Wages." [2]

In both cases the visitors were impressed by the attention given to productive efficiency in the United States. The first report deals with this as only one factor in the general situation, but a highly important one. As an illustration, they quote figures showing that in the two years ending December 31, 1923, the index number for installed primary power increased by 8.4 per cent, for number of wage earners by 26.7 per cent, but for volume of production by 42.5 per cent, a result which, they hold, shows clearly the improvement in the utilization of power resources and the increasing efficiency of American production.

This efficiency is ascribed to two reasons, the spread of education, both technical and general, and the labor situation. The outstanding features of the latter are the restriction of immigration, the high wages paid, the lack of restriction on output and the utilization of labor-saving devices, and the satisfactory relations between employers and employed. The high output is directly attributed to the high wages, both as cause and effect. The cost of labor makes it imperative for the employer to use every means of avoiding waste and increasing output, while the fact that he has a share in the prosperity which he produces makes the worker entirely willing to accept labor-saving devices, cooperate in reducing waste, and avoid any restriction upon output.

The report of the two engineers ascribes the prosperity of the United States almost wholly to the enlightened policy of paying high wages, securing high productivity, and lessening costs by increased efficiency and the elimination of waste, whether of material, time, strength, or machinery. There is abundant proof, they hold, that it is possible continually to reduce prices of manufactured goods to the consumers while at the same time increasing the wages of the producers, and by doing this to insure prosperity. They lay down nine principles of industrial management which they observed in operation in the United States as being especially important in producing such results:

1. The success of an enterprise is, in a large measure, dependent upon a strict adherence to the policy of promotion of staff by merit and ability only.
2. It is more advantageous to increase total profits by reducing prices to the consumer, at the same time maintaining or improving quality, with a consequent increase in the volume of sales than by attempting to maintain or raise prices.
3. Rapidity of turnover makes for comparatively small requirements of both funded and working capital, i. e., the capital required for shop space (including equipment) and the finance of work in progress.
4. The productive capacity per capita of labor can be increased without limit depending upon the progress made in time and trouble-saving appliances.
5. It is better that labor should be rewarded by wages bearing some relation to output rather than by a fixed wage, the amount of the wages earned by any one man being in no way limited. Contrary to the general belief in Europe, high wages do not necessarily mean a high level of prices. It is to the advantage of the community that the policy of industrial management should be directed toward raising wages and reducing prices.
6. A free exchange of ideas between competing firms should be advocated.
7. Elimination of waste is an essential factor in the attainment of national prosperity.

[2] Austin, Bertram and Lloyd, W. Francis: The Secret of High Wages. London, T. Fisher Unwin (Ltd.), 1926. 111 pp.

8. It is important that every possible attention be paid to the welfare of employees.
9. Research and experimental work are of prime importance to progress.

Contrasted with these conditions, the authors assert that conditions in England are very different. In their opinion there is a tendency of British manufacturers to conclude "that the only way of reducing costs is to reduce the rate of wages and to lengthen the working hours."

If employers will reduce wages they must expect a reduced output from the men since, as it is shown in Chapter VI, wages should bear some relation to output. When output is reduced, overhead charges go up and it is therefore by no means certain that the final total cost of the product will be proportionately less with the same methods of manufacture. It follows that a policy of reducing rates of wages is retrogressive, since it is not one which can be pursued indefinitely. Inefficient management is directly and solely responsible for "ca' canny."

In brief, the secret of high wages, as these authors see it, is for the employers to adopt the principles of efficiency engineering, to play fair with their workers, to pay high wages and to see that they are earned, to be on the alert to discover and to test every apparent improvement in methods or machinery and to adopt whatever stands the test, discarding without scruple the good in order to make way for the better.

Wage Fixing and Wage Rates in New South Wales

THE Official Year Book of New South Wales in the issue for 1924 presents some comparative figures showing the living and the minimum wage for a number of years and giving a comparison between the index figures of the nominal and real wages since 1911.

Minimum wage rates are fixed for nearly all classes of workers by industrial tribunals, which take as a basis the so-called "living wage," to which a secondary wage is added, depending upon skill or other special qualifications. The living wage is defined as the standard wage "which will do neither more nor less than enable a worker of the class to which the lowest wage would be awarded to maintain himself, his wife, and two children, in a house of three rooms and a kitchen, with food, plain and inexpensive, but quite sufficient in quantity and quality to maintain health and efficiency, and with an allowance for miscellaneous expenses." For a woman the living wage is an amount which will cover the cost of living for an adult female worker of the lowest class, without dependents, but receiving no aid of any kind from her family. The principle of a minimum wage for women was not adopted until 1918, after the board of trade had conducted its first inquiry into the cost of living.

The living wage, as distinct from the minimum wage, is fixed by the board of trade, which formerly issued a declaration as to living costs, and consequently as to the living wage, once a year. Of late years this has been found inadequate to the needs of the situation, and under legislation passed in November, 1922, the board may now declare living wages at intervals of not less than three months. No industrial tribunal may fix a minimum wage lower than the living wage set by the board of trade, but the court of industrial arbitration may refrain from making an award, or may cancel an award or an

agreement already made, if it is proved that serious unemployment within the industry affected may result from its operation.

The living wage in interstate industries may be set by the commonwealth court of conciliation and arbitration, which uses as a standard the so-called Harvester wage, adopted in 1907, which fixed 7s.[1] a day as the amount needed for a man to support himself, his wife, and three children. This rate is adjusted to fluctuations in the cost of living so as to secure for the worker the same degree of comfort which the 7s. provided in 1907. As the cost of living may vary widely during the term of an agreement, it became necessary to provide for a periodical revision of this basic wage, and several methods have been tried.

Under the existing method, introduced in December, 1921, it is a general rule to make the adjustments quarterly on a basic rate which is ascertained by applying to the Harvester wage the index number of the cost of food, groceries, and rent for the preceding quarter, and adding 3s. per week to the result. The sum of 3s. per week, though an arbitrary figure, was chosen after deliberation as a fair addition to cover possible increases in the cost of living in the quarter succeeding each adjustment, and to set off past losses suffered by the workers during the period when wages had been lagging behind the rapidly rising prices.

Each of the Australian States has its own method of fixing a living wage, and each is affected, so far as interstate agreements are concerned, by the determinations of the commonwealth court. In practice, however, the various determinations do not show much difference. The following table gives the living wage as set in each of the States, and as it would have been if fixed by the commonwealth court, in 1914 and 1925:

"LIVING WAGE" PER WEEK FOR ADULT MALES IN AUSTRALIA

[Pound at par=$4.8665, shilling=24.3 cents, penny=2.03 cents; exchange rates approximately at par]

Metropolitan area	July, 1914			June, 1925		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Sydney (New South Wales)	2	8	0	4	2	0
Melbourne (Victoria)	2	5	0	4	4	6
Brisbane (Queensland)	2	2	0	4	0	0
Adelaide (South Australia)	2	8	0	4	2	0
Perth (West Australia)	2	14	0	4	0	0
Hobart (Tasmania)	2	8	0	3	18	0
Commonwealth	2	13	6	4	4	0

This seems to show that increases in the living wage have been fairly uniform during the period covered, although there has been a certain evening up process; in 1914 the difference between the lowest and the highest wage set was 12s., while in 1925 it was only 6s. 6d.

The actual wage fixed differs from the living wage by the amount of the so-called secondary wage, which is considered separately for each occupation. It is a general custom to preserve unaltered the established margin of difference between different grades of workers, and to vary all rates of wages by the amount by which the living wage has been increased or diminished. A study of the wage rates in different industries shows that from 1913 to 1921 there was a general increase, but that since 1921 there has been a fall in most industries. The average rate for all industries stood in 1921 at 95s.

[1] Shilling at par=24.3 cents; exchange rate approximately at par.

10d. and at 93s. 6d. in 1924. The movement of real wages has varied somewhat from that of nominal wages. The method of discovering the real wages is thus described:

> In order to show the effective value of these amounts [the money wages] it is necessary to consider them in relation to the purchasing power of money. Food and rent are the only elements of expenditure of which satisfactory records as to variations in the purchasing power of money are available, and in the following statement the relation between the cost of these items and the average rates of wages is illustrated. For this purpose the average rates of wages have been reduced to index numbers, which have been divided by the index numbers of food and rent. The results indicate the variations in the effective wage.

Using this method the following table was constructed:

AVERAGE NOMINAL WAGE AND INDEX NUMBER OF NOMINAL WAGE, EFFECTIVE WAGE, AND FOOD AND RENT COMBINED

Year	Average nominal wage per week		Index number of food and rent	Index number of effective wage	Year	Average nominal wage per week		Index number of food and rent	Index number of effective wage
	Amount	Index number				Amount	Index number		
	s. d.					s. d.			
1901	43 11	854	848	1,007	1917	63 6	1,236	1,365	905
1906	45 4	882	901	979	1918	65 1	1,266	1,383	915
1911	51 5	1,000	1,000	1,000	1919	70 10	1,377	1,531	899
1912	54 3	1,055	1,113	948	1920	86 3	1,677	1,791	936
1913	55 9	1,084	1,144	948	1921	95 5	1,855	1,672	1,109
1914	56 0	1,089	1,171	930	1922	93 2	1,812	1,586	1,142
1915	56 10	1,105	1,283	861	1923	92 7	1,801	1,685	1,069
1916	59 7	1,160	1,351	859	1924	93 10	1,826	1,662	1,099

In commenting upon this table, attention is called to the fact that for the five years following 1911, although the nominal wage was rising, the cost of living was rising so much more rapidly that there was a real decrease in effective wages, which in 1916 were 14 per cent lower than in 1911. Thereafter effective wages began to gain on the cost of living, but it was not until 1921 that they passed the 1911 figure; in 1922 they reached their highest point, standing at 14 per cent above the level of 1911, and then began to decline, being in 1924 only 10 per cent higher.

This calculation of effective wages is based entirely upon wage rates, making no allowance for either overtime or unemployment, and consequently can not be taken as showing the course of actual earnings. According to the census records, there was much greater unemployment in 1921, when effective wages stood at 1,109, than in 1911 when they stood at 1,000, so that the financial condition of the worker did not reflect the full increase in the wage rate. Moreover, the calculation takes no account of the variations in different industries. "In the building trade, for instance, there has been remarkable activity in recent years, and competent men have been receiving wages above the rates prescribed by awards, and have probably suffered less intermittency than in periods of normal trade; meanwhile some of the other industries have experienced slackness."

Prohibition of Night Work in Chilean Bakeries

THE Chilean decree law (No. 24), published in the official journal, Diario Oficial, on October 4, 1924, prohibits night work in bakeries, pastry shops, candy factories, and similar undertakings between 9 p. m. and 5 a. m. Members of the proprietor's family are included in the prohibition. The above-named establishments are obliged to comply with the sanitary requirements to be laid down by the regulations issued in connection with this law. The first violation of the law is punishable by a fine of 100 pesos [1] for each employee working illegally, the second by a fine of 500 pesos, and the third by the closing of the establishment for at least a month. Any agreement made by employers and workers contrary to the provisions of the law is declared illegal.

Wages and Prices in Cienfuegos, Cuba

A REPORT from the American consul at Cienfuegos, Cuba, dated April 15, 1926, gives figures on the cost of living and wages in this district.

The following statement shows the average retail prices of certain staple articles:

		Price
Beef, soup	pound	$0. 30
Steak, round	do	. 30
Pork	do	. 35
Fresh fish	do	. 30
Dried fish	do	. 20
Rice	do	. 09
Yams	do	. 08
Bananas	dozen	. 10
Flour, wheat	pound	. 10
Sugar	do	. 05
Coffee, common grade	do	. 60
Butter	do	. 75
Cheese	do	$0. 65–1. 00
Eggs	dozen	. 72

Data giving the maximum, minimum, and average daily wages of the specified workers as well as the average number of working hours per day are given below:

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE DAILY WAGES AND HOURS PER DAY, BY OCCUPATION

Occupation	Wages per day			Hours per day
	Maximum	Minimum	Average	
Carpenters	$4.00	$3.00	$3.50	8–9
Masons	4.00	3.00	3.50	8–9
Painters	3.50	3.00	3.25	8–9
Plumbers	3.50	3.00	3.50	8–9
Mechanics, electricians	4.00	2.50	3.50	8–9
Stevedores, longshoremen	3.80	3.80	3.80	8–9
Seamen	[2] 3.80	3.80	3.80	8–10
Common laborer	2.10	1.85	2.00	8–10
Chauffeurs	2.75	2.25	2.50	8–10
Clerks, store	[3] 3.00	2.00	2.50	8–10
Clerks, office	4.50	2.50	3.50	8–9
School-teachers	4.00	2.00	3.00	6–9

[1] Peso at par = 36.5 cents; exchange rate is approximately 12 cents.
[2] Seamen are usually furnished the noon meal.
[3] Store clerks are usually given board and room free.

The report states that a medium-grade pair of shoes costs from $5 to $9; shirts cost from $1.50 to $3; and trousers, from $2 to $6.

Houses in the cheaper districts of the city having 4 to 6 rooms rent for between $20 and $40 a month while a single man usually pays from $10 to $15.

According to the report, the sugar market affects both wages and prices, the latter being higher from January to July, during the grinding season in the sugar mills, than during the rest of the year.

Average Daily Wages and Output in French Coal Mines, 1900 to 1925

THE following table, showing the average daily wages and output of underground, and of underground and surface workers combined in French coal mines and the labor cost per ton extracted, is taken from the 1926 report [1] of the Central Committee of the Coal Mines of France:

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES AND OUTPUT OF UNDERGROUND, AND OF UNDERGROUND AND SURFACE WORKERS AND LABOR COSTS PER TON MINED IN FRENCH COAL MINES

[Franc at par=19.3 cents, exchange rate for December, 1925=3.59 cents; metric tons converted to tons of 2,000 pounds]

Year	Average daily wages		Average daily production (tons)		Labor costs per ton mined
	Underground workers	Underground and surface workers	Underground workers	Underground and surface workers	
	Francs	*Francs*			*Francs*
1900	5.11	4.66	1.11	0.79	6.46
1901	5.28	4.82	1.05	.75	7.08
1902	4.99	4.57	1.05	.74	6.89
1903	4.96	4.55	1.09	.78	6.05
1904	4.93	4.53	1.07	.76	6.56
1905	4.94	4.53	1.10	.78	6.38
1906	5.22	4.75	1.09	(2)	6.81
1907	5.38	4.90	1.07	.77	7.05
1908	5.41	4.96	1.03	.74	7.36
1909	5.46	4.97	1.03	.74	7.40
1910	5.50	5.01	1.04	.74	7.46
1911	5.58	5.12	1.06	.75	7.45
1912	5.70	5.19	1.08	.77	7.44
1913	5.96	5.40	1.08	.77	7.77
1914	5.88	4.94	1.07	.74	8.10
1915	5.64	4.78	.94	.69	----------
1916	6.35	5.49	1.01	.67	----------
1917	7.83	6.92	.96	.70	----------
1918	11.15	10.12	.91	.62	----------
1919	15.21	13.44	.88	.56	28.68
1920	20.84	16.25	.84	.52	40.25
1921	20.49	18.84	.85	.55	38.90
1922	18.81	17.17	.84	.54	32.85
1923	21.55	20.05	.88	.60	36.61
1924	24.67	22.80	.88	.62	40.21
1925	25.60	23.59	.89	.64	40.95

[1] Comité Central des Houillères de France. Rapport présenté a l'assemblée générale ordinaire du 26 Mars, 1926. Paris, 1926, p. 20.

[2] Figures given are incorrect.

Wages and Cost of Living in Nayarit, Mexico

THE Mexican Department of National Statistics has published information [1] regarding the average monthly wages paid as well as the average family expenditure in the State of Nayarit, Mexico, in December, 1925, from which the following table is taken. In this study the family is considered as consisting of from three to five persons.

AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES AND EXPENDITURE OF WORKERS' FAMILIES IN NAYARIT, MEXICO, IN DECEMBER, 1925, BY CLASS OF WORKERS

[Exchange value of peso=48.8 cents]

Class of workers	Average monthly wage	Average monthly expenditure for—					
		Food	Clothing	Rent	Beverages	Recreation	Miscellaneous
	Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Teachers	87	45	11	12	4	4	7
Office workers:							
Public—							
Class A	100	52	13	15	5	6	9
Class B	68	39	9	10	3	4	3
Class C	39	22	6	5	2	2	2
Private—							
Class A	90	47	12	14	4	5	8
Class B	60	34	9	9	3	3	2
Class C	38	22	6	5	2	2	1
Manual workers:							
Mechanics	120	62	15	18	7	8	10
Carpenters	52	30	7	7	4	2	2
Bricklayers	48	27	6	6	5	2	2
Shoemakers	57	32	8	8	4	2	3
Workers in general	54	30	7	7	4	3	3
Rural workers: Day laborers	23	18	3	-------	2	-------	-------

[1] Mexico. Departamento de la Estadistica Nacional. Estadistica Nacional, Federal District, Feb. 28, 1926, p. 48.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

Hours and Working Conditions of Women in Illinois Industries

IN THE late winter and spring of 1924 the United States Women's Bureau, at the suggestion of the Illinois League of Women Voters and with the cooperation of the State and local authorities, carried on a survey of the hours and working conditions of women in industrial employment in Illinois.[1] The survey covered 429 establishments in 50 cities and towns, employing 48,730 women, and included workers in 31 manufacturing industries, in stores, laundries, hotels, and restaurants. Data as to hours and working conditions were obtained by interviews with employers and managers, by inspections of the plants, and from shop records opened to the investigators. Personal data were obtained by means of questionnaires filled in by not far from 19,000 women, the number reporting on the different items varying.

The Workers

OF 18,376 women reporting on nativity, 76.7 per cent were native-born whites, 4.6 per cent were native-born colored, and 18.7 per cent were foreign born. In this respect Chicago differed from the rest of the State. Practically all of the negro women reporting were employed in Chicago, while the proportion of foreign-born whites was 28.7 per cent in Chicago and 8.7 per cent elsewhere. The majority of the negro women were employed in slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, in the manufacture of house furnishings and miscellaneous textiles, and in laundries. Foreign-born women formed over a third of the total number reporting in slaughtering and meat packing, in the manufacture of bread and bakery products, of glue, and of tobacco products. In the slaughtering and meat-packing industry only a quarter of those reporting were native-born whites.

Of the 18,256 women who reported on age, practically one-third (32.2 per cent) were under 20 years old, 40.9 per cent were 20 but under 30, and 26.9 per cent were 30 and over. Of the 17,966 who gave information as to marital status, 22.4 per cent were married, and 12.3 per cent were widowed, divorced, or separated, making a total of 34.8 per cent who were or had been married. The great majority (83 per cent) of those reporting on living conditions were at home, 6.4 per cent were with relatives but away from home, and only 10.6 per cent were living independently.

Hours

THE Illinois law permits a 10-hour day for women, but comparatively few of the employers took advantage of this limit, though there was a difference in this particular between Chicago

[1] United States. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin No. 51: Women in Illinois industries—a study of hours and working conditions. Washington, 1926.

and the rest of the State. Hours for hotel and restaurant workers were too irregular to be grouped with those of other employees. For the women employed in stores, factories, and laundries, the following table shows the distribution by locality and scheduled daily hours:

SCHEDULED DAILY HOURS, BY LOCALITY

Locality	Per cent of women having specified daily hours					
	Under 8	8	Over 8 and under 9	9	Over 9 and under 10	10
State	4.1	26.9	36.9	23.3	3.3	5.4
Chicago	5.9	29.9	51.0	10.6	1.9	.4
Other places	1.6	22.8	16.7	41.2	5.2	12.5

It will be noticed that long hours were more common elsewhere than in Chicago, only 2.3 per cent of the women surveyed in that city having a scheduled day of over 9 hours, as compared with a trifle over one-sixth of the women in other parts of the State.

The short Saturday was quite general, so that the scheduled week rarely amounted to six times the daily schedule. Taking the State as a whole, 62 per cent had a scheduled week of 48 hours or less, 24.5 per cent had over 48 up to and including 50 hours, and 13.5 per cent one of over 50. Only 5.7 per cent had a scheduled working week of over 54 hours. In Chicago 83.7 per cent had a scheduled week of 48 hours or less, and only 1 per cent one of 54 hours or over.

The hours actually worked differed considerably from those scheduled, since it was necessary to take into consideration both lost time and overtime. Almost one-half (46.3 per cent) of the women had lost time during the week taken, labor turnover, absence for personal reasons, and slack work being the causes assigned. The same woman might both lose time and work overtime within the same week, so that it was difficult to draw any conclusions as to the average time worked. For 35,636 women employed in factories, stores, and laundries the actual hours worked during a given week were obtained, showing the following results:

HOURS WORKED DURING THE WEEK, BY LOCALITY

Locality	Per cent of women who worked during the week—			
	Under 44 hours	44 and under 52 hours	52 and under 60 hours	60 hours and over
State	30.1	55.4	14.1	0.4
Chicago	35.8	54.3	9.7	.1
Other places	23.5	56.8	19.1	.8

For women employed in restaurants, workdays of less than 8 hours were more common than for those employed in stores, factories, or laundries, but so also were long workdays. The schedules of the restaurant workers were apt to be irregular, and their working hours were stretched over a longer period than was the case in other occupations.

No great difference was found as to working conditions between Chicago and the smaller places.

Neither group of establishments was uniformly good nor bad. Modern factories, satisfactory on the whole, were found both in Chicago and in the smaller community; so also were establishments which were poorly arranged and badly managed. Probably there was a greater proportion of large modern plants in Chicago than in the smaller towns, but even in such establishments matters important from the point of view of the workers' comfort and health often had been overlooked, and standards of general workroom conditions or of sanitation failed to come up to a satisfactory level.

CHILD LABOR AND CHILD WELFARE

Cost of Bringing Up a Child

A SERIES of articles in which an attempt is made to arrive at the average expenditure required to bring a child through the period of infancy and adolescence when he is being fitted to take his place in the world has appeared in recent issues of the Statistical Bulletin [1] published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. This appraisal of the cost of bringing up a child is based on the cost-of-living studies of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and on studies of the Federal Children's Bureau and other agencies. In such a study interest centers naturally in the family of moderate or average circumstances; a family of five, consisting of father, mother, and three children, having an annual expenditure of $2,500, has been taken, therefore, as the basis upon which the estimates have been made.

In a consideration of the expense involved in the rearing of a child, the first item to be considered is the cost of being born. This first cost varies greatly according to the economic status of the parents and even among people of the same class, particularly those in moderate or poor circumstances, there is much difference as a result of racial customs or the degree of intelligence exercised in apportioning expenses among the different items of the family budget. Numerical estimates of the cost of childbirth, therefore, represent only a rough average about which the cost in individual cases will range.

The minimum cost of maternity care given by a general practitioner either in the patient's home or in a hospital ward is said to be around $150, while better care, including a semiprivate room, can be obtained for about $100 more. The service of a specialist increases this minimum to between $400 and $500. Treatment by midwives and the outdoor hospital service cost considerably less than the minimum hospital care. In 1924, 80 per cent of the births in New York City were attended by physicians and half of these took place in hospitals. In round figures, therefore, it is estimated that the average cost of being born ranges from $200 to $300. Although this is not a large outlay when considered in relation to the mean length of life, which is about 55 years, it is an item which has to be met at one point of time and does impose, therefore, a considerable burden upon families of moderate means.

The cost of food is the next most important item in building the human machine. Here, also, conditions vary according to the economic and social status of the parents. In computing the average expenditure, the study of Prof. William F. Ogburn which was based on the scale of relative food consumption for persons of different ages prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, has been used. Computed on the basis of a family (of three children and father and mother)

[1] Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Statistical Bulletin, November, December, 1925, and February–April, 1926.

having an annual expenditure of $2,500, it is estimated that the total cost of food for a boy from birth to age 18 would be approximately $2,400, and of a girl $2,330. Making allowance, however, for a somewhat higher consumption of food per adult male unit established by a similar study by Raymond Pearl, the total cost of feeding a child from birth to the 18th birthday is placed at $2,500, or one year's total expenditure for the family as a whole.

The next item in the account is the cost of clothing and shelter. The expenditure for clothing is an individual concern, while that for shelter (including such elements as housing, fuel, light, household furnishings and upkeep) covers joint expenses which have to be considered as a whole. Estimates of expenditures for these items are based on the cost-of-living study published in 1924 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The cost of clothing for the boy up to the age of 18 is placed at $912 after deducting $20 for clothing during the first months of life which was included in the estimate of the average cost of being born; the clothing expenditure for the girl, after making the same deduction, is estimated to be $1,002.

The amount spent annually for shelter depends to a large extent upon the locality in which the family lives. The estimate, however, is based on present conditions in large cities where rents are notoriously high and where persons of small incomes are forced either to live in homes that seem inadequate to persons living in small towns or on farms, or spend too large a proportion of their income on rent. The choice between these two evils will depend largely upon the social habits of the individuals concerned. It is probable that the man with the white-collar job will choose the more expensive place to live, while the artisan and skilled laborer will be more inclined to seek a cheaper dwelling. As the second of these social classes is the larger it is given greater weight in estimating the expenditures for shelter. It is assumed, therefore, that out of an expenditure of $2,500 a year, from $40 to $50 per month is spent for a 4-room apartment, or, fixing an average of $45, the rent bill would amount to $540. For this amount spent for rent there would be two bedrooms, combined living and dining room, which might also contain a folding bed, and in some cases a bathroom. Apportionment of this and similar items on a satisfactory basis among the different members of the family is difficult but for want of a better method the cost has been distributed so that in the course of 18 years each child is charged with about one-sixth of the family expense for shelter. The total rent for this period would be $9,720 and the share for one child $1,620. This figure does not allow for fuel and light, the family cost of which is placed at $100 per annum, or $300 for each child during the 18-year period. On the same basis of a one-sixth share in the expenses for each child the cost of furniture, household equipment and upkeep during the 18 years is estimated to be $351. The total cost of the various items included under clothing and shelter during the 18 years is $3,327 for a boy and, because of the somewhat greater expense for clothing, $3,417 for a girl, or an average of about $3,400 for both sexes.

The remaining items to be considered on the cost side of the account during the formative years of the individual are the expenditures for health, recreation, and sundries, and for education.

The annual cost of putting a child through the elementary schools in New York State has been shown in a study by the American Council on Education to be $107 and through the secondary schools, $200. Including $100 for a year's attendance at kindergarten, the total cost of a complete grammar and high school education is $1,750. These figures are somewhat higher than for the country as a whole, however, owing to the lower standards in some sections. All children do not complete both grammar and high school but the minimum time for school is in almost all cases seven years, so that the average cost of schooling is considered to be approximately $1,100. This item, of course, does not appear explicitly in the family budget and the parent may not even pay direct taxes, but indirectly they share in the tax burdens through the sums paid for rent and in the prices paid for other necessities. While the cost of education directly borne by the parents amounts to only about $50 in the course of the school years, for such items as books, stationery, and incidentals, the whole cost of education is of interest because of the great importance of this element in the making of the citizen.

The cost of health items, such as the services of physicians, dental care, medicines, and hospital and nursing care, is estimated to be $284. Recreation costs for the period are fixed at $130, insurance at $54, and sundries at $570.

The following statement brings together the cost of all these items and shows the average cost of rearing a child to the age of 18 years:

Cost of being born	$250
Food	2,500
Clothing and shelter	3,400
Education, minor items met by the individual family purse	50
Education, major items, cost of schooling provided by the community—$1,100.	
Health	284
Recreation	130
Insurance	54
Sundries	570
Total (exclusive of item 5)	7,238

The difference in the amounts spent for boys and girls are considered to be so small that no distinction for sex has been made in this summary, and the sum arrived at—approximately $7,200—is believed to be a fair representation of the money expended by a family of the $2,500 income class during the years when the child is being prepared to take his place in the world and become a contributor economically to the family and the community.

Inquiry into Unemployment Among Boys and Girls in England

IN JUNE and July, 1925, an inquiry was made into the personal circumstances and industrial history of 3,331 boys and 2,701 girls who were registered for employment at the labor exchanges and juvenile employment bureaus in England and Scotland, and a summary of its results are given in the Ministry of Labor Gazette (London) for May, 1926.

The group was chosen carefully so as to furnish a fair sample of working-class boys and girls. About 28 per cent were under 16, the rest being 16 but under 18. Two per cent were still at school, 14.7 per cent had not been employed since leaving school, and the remainder had held one or more positions. Nearly 70 per cent were described as of good physique, and over 84 per cent were in good health. It was a noteworthy fact that the older boys and girls were markedly superior in health and physique to the younger.

Nearly four-fifths of the children (77.9 per cent) had both parents living. One or both parents of 68.3 per cent of the boys and of 73.6 per cent of the girls were employed. In one of every five families represented, unemployment benefit was being drawn by some person other than the boys and girls concerned. Poor relief was drawn in 6 per cent of the families.

The principal industries for which the unemployed boys were registered were engineering, colliery work, shipbuilding, transport, and the building trades. Of the girls who had had employment, 16.3 per cent were registered for domestic service, and 15.3 per cent for the textile industries; 14 per cent had been shop assistants, and 9.4 per cent had been in the dress trades.

In general there had been no long interval between leaving school and obtaining work. A little over one-half of those who had had any employment had secured it within one month of leaving school, and about three-quarters within 6 months. There seemed a tendency to hold on to positions when they had once been obtained. Less than a third (29.5 per cent) of the situations were left for reasons within the control of the boys and girls themselves, and 70.5 per cent for reasons outside their control, of which trade depression accounted for 35.7 per cent.

The results obtained do not support the view that boys and girls tend to leave their first situations at the earliest possible moment from sheer love of change. More than two-thirds of the boys and slightly less than two-thirds of the girls held their first situations for more than 6 months. The textile, coal-mining, and engineering industries in the case of boys, and the textile and dress trades in the case of girls, provided the highest portion of first situations held for more than a year.

The average number of weeks spent in each situation was about 41. On an average the boys had been unemployed, since losing their last situation, for 8.4 weeks, and the girls for 7.2 weeks. The older boys had been unemployed for longer periods than the younger, but no such difference was observable among the girls. The inquiry seemed to lend some confirmation to the theory that there is a tendency to discharge young workers when they reach the age of 16, in order to avoid the necessity for paying increased wages and to escape meeting the requirements of the health and unemployment insurance acts. Of the boys who had been in trade board occupations, 2.9 per cent were discharged on reaching 16, and of those in other insurable occupations, 6.6 per cent. For girls the corresponding proportions were 7.8 per cent and 2.8 per cent.

As to employability, the boys and girls were divided into three classes: (a) Those who in normal times would probably have been trained for a trade, commercial occupation, or profession; (b) those who would have entered an occupation providing for steady employment; and (c) those who would have taken up any job that was

available. This classification was then correlated with the kind of situation obtained and the number of situations held.

The results indicated that there were more boys and girls of the best type than there were situations of the best type; that there was in general a substantial correspondence between the type of boy or girl and the type of situation obtained, but that a comparatively high proportion of boys (though not of girls) of the best type had obtained casual or seasonal situations, or had had four, five, six or more situations.

In general, the worse the physique, health, or appearance of the boy or girl the longer was the average total period of unemployment between situations; the boy with poor physique, for example, is unemployed for a period nearly twice as long as the boy of good physique.

The final conclusions are of interest in connection with the statements often made as to the effect the present depression is having upon the young people who are entering industry.

The results of the inquiry suggest that the great bulk of the boys and girls who were registered for employment were simply young workers of ordinary type who had been unemployed for a comparatively short period; there is no indication of a large class of boys and girls, verging on the unemployable, who have deteriorated markedly in consequence of long-continued unemployment. On the other hand the inquiry shows that there is a residue of difficult cases, which in themselves constitute a problem of the first magnitude. Perhaps the most significant fact disclosed is the unsatisfactory character of much of the employment which the boys and girls were seeking, and the apparently high proportion of situations which, though providing possibly some security of tenure, offered few or no prospects of training for a definite occupation.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE

Health Hazards in Brass Foundries[1]

A STUDY of the health hazards of the brass foundry trade, made recently by the United States Public Health Service, included field investigations covering 22 foundries, both large and small establishments, and laboratory experiments of the effects upon animals of the inhalation and ingestion of zinc oxide.

The 22 plants visited in the course of the investigation employed approximately 340 men. The foundries were of both modern and old-fashioned construction and the working conditions were considered typical of the trade generally at the present time. The metals used in making brass castings are an alloy of copper and zinc in varying proportions, with sometimes other metals, such as phosphorus, copper, manganese, lead, tin, iron, aluminum, and antimony, depending upon the type of casting to be produced.

The principal hazards present were found to be exposure to dust, inadequate illumination and glare, poor ventilation, the presence of fumes, gases, smoke, heat, cold, and dampness, and in some instances unsatisfactory personal service facilities.

The dust hazard in the foundry rooms comes mainly from sand during its preparation for molding and in knocking out the castings, while a considerable quantity of dry sand accumulates on the floor and is stirred up by the men's feet. The metallic dusts present in the foundry rooms consist usually of cadmium oxide, copper, manganese, iron, antimony, tin, and lead, and are formed during the melting, casting, and cleaning processes. Zinc oxide, which is always present in the air of foundries, but is present in enormous quantities during the casting, is particularly important in its effect upon the workmen. There are also the "parting dusts" which are trade products and contain, either singly or in combination, such substances as ground bone, lycopodium, flour, sand, fuller's earth, graphite, and lampblack. These dusts are sifted over the surfaces of the molds and are inhaled to some extent by the workers during the sifting. It was the general impression among the workers that the parting dusts were harmful and it was claimed that they caused an irritation of the nose and throat, resulting in a hacking cough.

An analysis of the dust in air samples obtained from several foundries showed that, in the rooms in three foundries where there was an appreciable amount of zinc dust, from 33 to 64 per cent of the men had been affected at various times by the zinc, while in one case all the men examined gave histories of frequent attacks of zinc intoxication.

During the melting and pouring of the alloy in the molding room of a foundry dense white clouds, composed chiefly of zinc oxide,

[1] United States. Treasury Department. Public Health Service. Public Health Bulletin No. 157, Health hazards of brass founders, by Dr. John A. Turner and Dr. L. R. Thompson. Washington, 1926.

escape from the crucibles and ladles. These fumes, which rise first to the ceiling, spread through the room unless sufficient exit is provided for them at the top of the room. In bad weather the increased water saturation of the air also interferes to some extent with the escape of the fumes from the room.

In the cleaning department, the dust to which the workers are exposed is chiefly siliceous in character, and the methods followed in cleaning the castings are important from a health standpoint. Sand blasting is an extremely dusty process and workers can not remain at this work for more than a year or two without serious detriment to health unless the work is done in an inclosed sand-blasting chamber. Chipping the rough and uneven surfaces of castings exposes the worker to injury from metallic particles which are too large to be classed as dust but which may be injurious, especially to the eyes, while in grinding, workers are exposed to both siliceous and metallic dust as well as to particles from the grinding wheels.

In the foundries studied, physical examinations were made of 212 workers, of whom 102 were exposed to zinc oxide during the melting and pouring of brass and had suffered from "brass foundrymen's ague," 68 had been exposed but were not affected, and 42 had not been exposed. The workers who gave histories of zinc-oxide poisoning were shown to be in somewhat poorer physical condition than those who were exposed to the fumes but not affected by them, but on account of the small number of workers examined it was not possible definitely to relate these conditions to their exposure to zinc.

Of the 102 men giving a history of attacks of the ague, 26 per cent had an average of one attack a week, 11 per cent had two a week, and 2 per cent, three a week; while the frequency of the attacks varied in the remainder from an average of one per month to one or two a year. The majority stated that the attacks occurred only during the winter months, and that in inclement weather an attack was almost certain, while symptoms were generally said to be milder during the summer than during the winter months. An appreciable degree of toleration—that is, less severe symptoms—was said to have been developed by 18 per cent of the men. Of 84 men reporting on the length of employment before ill effects of the zinc oxide were produced, 25 per cent reported that the first symptoms occurred within periods varying from one day to less than one month; 25 per cent, from one month to less than three months; 6 per cent, from three months to less than six months; 5 per cent, from six months to one year; 14 per cent, from one to two years; and the remainder from two to five years. Those men who had been employed for years without experiencing any ill effects considered that their escape was due to the good ventilation in the shops in which they were employed, as well as to acquired immunity. Premonitory symptoms of the attacks were experienced by 75 per cent of the men, either in the middle of the afternoon, upon leaving work and coming in contact with the cold outside air, or later in the evening. In the majority of cases no disabling effects were present the day following the attack. The premonitory symptoms are a general feeling of illness, followed by a chilly sensation, and sometimes accompanied by a stiffening of the back and arms. Other symptoms frequently present are dull headache, metallic taste, irritation of the throat, coughing, burning

of the eyes, and thirst. After the development of the premonitory symptoms, the chilly sensation may develop into a severe chill, after which there is a fever with more or less profuse sweating, the other symptoms gradually subsiding. Sixty-six of the men reported that they felt no ill effects on the morning following the attack, while the remaining 36 stated that the effects lasted part or all of the following day.

Supplementing this study in brass foundries, 19 workers who were exposed to zinc oxide dust in a zinc oxide plant were examined. Twelve of these men gave a history of oxide chills, the similarity in the symptoms and the severity of the attacks being so constant in all stages that there seemed to be no question that the basic causative factor was the same in both industries. The symptoms among brass foundrymen, however, were present only in acute attacks, while among the oxide workers they were fairly constant, due to the fact that the oxide workers work in an atmosphere heavily laden with the oxide dust

Activities of Union Health Center During 1925 [1]

THE Union Health Center, New York City, which was organized about 13 years ago by the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union to take care of the health of the more than 50,000 members of the union, is to extend the facilities of its clinics to members of other labor organizations. The services of the medical and dental departments will be available to members of other trade-unions on the same terms as to its own members, and it is hoped to develop the medical organization to a point where it will become a workers' health center representing the cooperative efforts of organized labor along these lines.

A complete medical clinic is maintained at the health center which provides for general medical care; physical examinations, electric, baking, and light treatments; eye examinations and refraction; nose, adenoid, and tonsil operations; and also contains a laboratory and a fully equipped X-ray department. The dental clinic, which has recently been enlarged at an expense of $25,000, is said to be the largest in the world. It now occupies 10,000 square feet of floor space, with 22 chairs or dental units, and has a capacity of 500 patients a day. Since the clinic was established nine years ago, nearly 20,000 patients have been treated. All kinds of dental work, extractions, X rays, prophylaxis, fillings, children's work, and making of plates, bridges, etc., are done in the department. The charges are based on the actual cost of the services rendered, but show a small deficit. During 1925 the actual cost of every hour's work in the clinic was $4.12, while the income per hour was $4.08. Patients treated during the year totaled 4,611.

The medical clinic had an attendance of 21,963 during the year 1925, and 23,362 examinations and treatments were given. In this department also there was a deficit, amounting to about $4,200, due to the fact that while the charge for the physical examination is $1 the actual cost of the examination is $1.49.

[1] Union Health Center News, New York, February and May, 1926.

The attitude of this organization toward self-help by trade-union organizations in securing better health conditions and in providing insurance against sickness and accident is shown in the following statement from the Union Health Center News:

Labor unions should extend their activities to workers' health and health education.

The function of labor unions was and is to improve the economic conditions of the workers and the members of their organizations. By economic conditions are meant a living wage, reasonable hours of labor, decent working conditions, and an American standard of living.

Decent working and living conditions imply also safe and fire-protected buildings to work in, clean and sanitary shops, safeguarded machinery and the prevention of accidents, elimination of occupational diseases, a working-day short enough to prevent fatigue, good food, decent housing, time for recreation, insurance against accidents, unemployment, sickness, and old age.

Lately the unions have extended their activities to banking and to the care of the savings of the workers. If the care of the monetary savings of the workers is of importance, how much more important is it for the union to take care of the health of the workers and save their lives. If the unions are beginning to introduce insurance for unemployment, why not also inaugurate insurance for accidents and for sickness and other hazards of the worker's life in his trade and in his home?

There is a big project among the workers for their own life insurance institution. Why not also inaugurate an insurance against sickness? Is not sickness many times a cause of unemployment and of the general misery of the workers?

The time has come for a broader conception of the care of the workers by their own organizations. There is no reason why workers should be compelled to depend upon charity or philanthropic organizations for care during sickness. The unions should enlarge their scope to include health as well as "bread and butter."

Just as it is important to educate workers in their economic problems, it is equally important to spread the gospel of health education among the workers, to make them healthier and stronger union members, and to furnish them with health facts about themselves and their industry.

Industrial Accidents and Diseases in New Jersey, 1924–25 [1]

THE Industrial Accident Bureau of New Jersey reports for the fiscal year 1924–25 more than 45,000 accidents causing death, permanent disability, or a time loss exceeding the remainder of the shift or day during which the injury was received. This number, however, represents a decrease of almost 3,000 as compared with that of the previous year.

The following table gives some of the details of the 1924-25 accident record:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS IN NEW JERSEY, BY INDUSTRIAL GROUPS, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1925

Industrial group	Fatal	Nonfatal	Total
Factories and workshops	111	26,092	26,203
Building and construction	121	8,763	8,884
Mines and quarries	5	330	335
Miscellaneous group	88	9,791	9,879
Agriculture	7	543	550
Domestic service	1	783	784
Total	325	44,976	45,301

[1] New Jersey. Department of Labor. Report, July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925. [Trenton, 1925?]

Of the 111 fatal accidents in factories and workshops, the greatest number, 28, were caused by explosions; 15 were due to occupational diseases, and 12 to the workers being run over or run down by cars, trucks, etc. In the causes of nonfatal accidents, power-working machines lead with a record of 8,775 injuries, while 6,384 injuries were received in the handling of objects, 1,921 by stepping on or striking objects, and 1,897 through the falling of objects not being handled.

A further analysis of the accidents in the factory and workshop group discloses that the chemical and chemical products industry was charged with the highest number of deaths (32). The metal goods industry was responsible not only for the next highest number of deaths (17), but also outstripped all the other industries in the number of nonfatal accidents (4,235). The machinery and instruments industry, however, was not so far behind, with a record of 3,990 nonfatal injuries.

Of the 121 deaths from accidents in building and construction, 78 were due to the following causes: Falls from buildings, scaffolds, ladders, etc. (27); railway operations (21); contact with electric apparatus (17); and falls from or being run down by cars, automobiles, trucks, etc. (13). Of the 8,763 nonfatal injuries in the same industrial group, more than one-half (4,827) were due to falls of material, while the handling of sharp objects was accountable for 1,196 injuries.

The leading cause of both fatal and nonfatal accidents in mining and quarrying in 1924–25 was "falls of ore, rock, earth, etc.", 3 deaths and 84 nonfatal injuries occurring in this connection.

In 1924–25 there were 16 deaths from occupational diseases in New Jersey, according to the report under review, 12 of these being due to tetraethyl lead, 2 to lead refining, and 1 each to aniline and benzol (silk finishing).

The 224 cases of nonfatal occupational disease are recorded as follows:

Anthrax	15
Benzine (petroleum product)	1
Benzol:	
Aniline	4
Benzol (silk finishing)	2
Dinitrochlorbenzol	2
Orthotoluidine	1
Paranitraniline	1
Paranitrochlorbenzol	1
Caisson disease	3
Carbon monoxide	1
Chrome poisoning	4
Cyanamid	1
Dermatitis	29
Inflammation of eyelids (from lacquer)	5
Lead:	
Chemical plant	1
Enameling	8
Ink manufacture	1
Insecticides	2
Lead—Continued.	
Junk yard	1
Lead batteries	1
Lead cables	2
Lead refining	19
Manufacture of lead oxide	1
Oilcloth	1
Oil refining	1
Paint and dry colors	9
Painters	12
Red lead	3
Soldering	3
Tetraethyl lead	85
Mercury:	
Primary batteries	1
Chemical manufacture	1
Storage batteries	1
Zinc poisoning	1
Total	224

Under date of November 15, 1924, the Commissioner of Labor of New Jersey sent out a letter to all the plants in that State that were engaged in processes hazardous to the health of their workmen, recommending that consideration be given to selecting workers

physically fit for their jobs; to warning them of dangers involved in their occupations; to providing for their periodical physical examination by a competent physicain; to making the premises safe; to providing safe equipment, safety devices, clean working clothes, standardized sanitary equipment, expert medical attention for all workers whose health may be impaired by their employment; and to reporting to the proper authority on every case of sickness resulting from the occupation.

The above-mentioned letter also declared that a solemn reciprocal obligation requires workmen engaged in dangerous trades to cooperate with plant managements to the fullest extent.

During the year covered by the report the Bureau of Education and Inspection Service has carried on a vigorous safety education campaign throughout New Jersey with the cooperation of various organizations, 122 meetings being held in this connection in 48 cities and towns.

The commissioner of labor also recommends that insurance carriers should provide the employers whose risks they carry with practical posters for properly placed bulletin boards. Furthermore, these carriers should encourage the inauguration of the educational programs adopted by the New Jersey Compensation Rating and Inspection Bureau. The eighth annual report of that office includes a table showing that there are about 4,000 New Jersey plants subject to safety credit, approximately 2,000, however, being too small to justify the keeping of safety records. Although the other 2,000 are "reasonably large" only 184 "are receiving full credits for maintaining a safety campaign." Moreover, it is reported that only 235 out of the 4,000 plants have a credit rating for the posting of safety bulletins.

Lead Poisoning of Motor-Car Painters in New South Wales [1]

AN INVESTIGATION of lead poisoning among employees in the motor-car painting trade in Sydney, Australia, in 1924 covered 100 of the 120 members of the coachmakers' union in that city.

Complete medical examinations were made of each man, including a record of the blood pressure, hemoglobin estimation, examination of the blood for punctate basophilia or stippling of the red cells, and chemical or microscopical examination of the urine. As a result of the examinations and the various tests, a positive diagnosis of lead poisoning was made in 14 of the 100 men examined, while 12 were considered to be slightly affected by lead poisoning and 17 had symptoms which were suspicious but not sufficient to justify a positive diagnosis of lead poisoning.

In the examination of these workers the lead line was found in 11 cases. Of these men a diagnosis of lead poisoning was made in 6, of slight lead poisoning in 4, and of no disability in 1. The significance to be attached to the blue line is the same as that of lead in urine, but it relates to the recent past while lead in the urine shows present absorption. The blue line shows that active transportation of lead has taken place in the body and that the tissues have been exposed to its harmful effects. A blue line therefore is an indication for

[1] Australia (New South Wales). Director-General of Public Health. Annual report, 1924. Section I-C, Industrial Hygiene, pp. 90-100. Sydney, 1926.

examination for punctate basophilia to see if the blood-forming tissues have been poisoned and for granular casts to determine whether the kidneys have been affected. A blue line is a particularly suspicious symptom in the otherwise healthy gum.

A fatal case of lead poisoning in which a blue line on the gum was practically the only symptom came under the observation of the writer of the report. The case was that of a man engaged in repairing wine casks which had been painted with an exceedingly dangerous mixture of white-lead and turpentine. In handling the casks this mixture came off as fine dust. The man, who was 33 years old, had been engaged at this work for two years. His only complaint of ill health was of muscular pains, but examination of the blood showed marked basophilia and anemic changes and examination of urine and feces showed a considerable elimination of lead. He was advised to change his work and did so, but died in a few weeks of rupture of a blood vessel in the brain.

Only recently has the significance of finding lead in the urine of workers exposed to any form of this element received a satisfactory explanation. Recent researches have shown that the presence of lead in the urine or in the majority of the body tissues indicates that lead is being actively transported by the blood and therefore absorption has recently taken place or else considerable amounts have just been liberated from the bones. Therefore, if a person is engaged in a process in which there is a known exposure to lead or its compounds and lead is found in his urine, it is certain this is the result of recent absorption. There is no definite knowledge, however, of the amount of lead excreted daily by individuals either poisoned or not affected by the lead taken in, but it is considered probable that a large amount is more generally associated with severe cases of poisoning than a small amount. If through intensive study the amount excreted in the urine could be correlated with the intake it might help to do away with the term "lead absorption" which although it is used in its legitimate sense to mean merely the presence of lead in the body, is often used to cover up or belittle signs or symptoms of poisoning.

The tests showed that lead was being excreted by 62 of the men examined and lead in amounts of 0.05 miligram per liter or more was found in the urine of 9 of the 14 men diagnosed as affected by lead poisoning, in 6 of the 11 men diagnosed as having slight lead poisoning, and in 21 of the remaining painters. Three of the men whose cases were pronounced lead poisoning had been away from work for some time.

Although punctate basophilia are present in practically all cases of lead poisoning, they may be absent or present only intermittently. They were found to be present in 18 of the men examined, 6 of these were among those diagnosed as being affected by lead poisoning and 5 among those considered to be only slightly poisoned. Degenerative changes were indicated by granular casts in the urine and by increased blood pressure in a considerable number of the men examined. In summing up the study it is stated that the incidence of lead poisoning was sufficiently grave in this industry to call for the suppression of all processes creating lead dust, for periodical examination of employees, and for better ventilation of the paint shops, and that "to forbid the use of lead compounds in any painting process done indoors is an obvious remedy."

Belgian Law Prohibiting Use of White Lead in Interior Painting[1]

A LAW passed in Belgium, March 30, 1926, effective six months from that date, prohibits the sale of white lead and other pigments or colors containing white lead and their use in painting the interior of buildings or in painting any article to be used in the furnishing of buildings. White pigments of any kind may not contain more than 2 per cent of metallic lead by weight.

Exceptions are allowed in the case of the sale of white lead pigments in tubes containing less than 500 grams, and in the use of these pigments in painting articles for export in cases where the orders call for the use of white lead. Their use is also allowed in painting industrial establishments in which there is escape of sulphurous gas.

The dry scraping and sandpapering of surfaces painted with white lead paint is forbidden.

Violations of the law are punishable by a fine of from 200 to 1,000 francs,[2] which will be doubled in case the offense is repeated.

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[1] Comité Central Industriel de Belgique, Bulletin, May 5, 1926, pp. 639, 640.
[2] Franc at par=19.3 cents; exchange value in March, 1926=4.2 cents.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOCIAL INSURANCE

Experience With Group Life Insurance in the Metal Trades

THE department of industrial relations of the National Metal Trades Association has recently made a study of the extent to which group insurance plans are in force among its members.[1] The study was carried out by means of a series of questionnaires and by individual plant studies. From the returns received from the first questionnaire it was found that 135 companies belonging to this association had group insurance in force, while 17 companies had tried it but had given it up. The field study covered 64 plants which had had experience with group insurance, 8 of these having abandoned it.

It is estimated that the total amount of group insurance carried by all companies in the United States in 1925 was in excess of $3,500,000,000, this protection being provided for approximately 2,500,000 employees and their dependents.

Under the group insurance plan a master policy is issued to the employer, covering all the eligible employees, but the individual policy may be either a fixed amount for each employee, an amount based upon the annual wages of the employee, or an amount increasing with the employee's length of service up to a fixed maximum. This insurance may be paid for entirely by the employer or the employees may contribute a part of the cost.

The reasons for taking out group insurance as reported by 75 of the companies were either humanitarian motives or such economic reasons as the reduction of labor turnover or the general promotion of the employees' good will. The results of the plan were said to be satisfactory by 57 of the 82 companies reporting on this point, while 10 reported that it was only partially successful, and 15 declared that it had not produced the results hoped for at the time it was started. Only two of the companies which adopted group insurance for the purpose of reducing turnover reported that it had had the desired result, the general opinion seeming to be that there can be no very decided effect upon the turnover since the class of workmen known as "floaters" are usually not covered. In almost all cases employees are not eligible for group insurance until they have been on the pay roll for a stated period, usually six months, thus eliminating the most unstable part of the force from participation in the plan. The effects on production can not be measured with any exactness but it is believed in some instances to exert some effect, while it is considered by some of the firms reporting to promote good will among the employees.

The attitude of employees toward group insurance in 60 plants having had it in force for five years was said at the end of that period

[1] National Metal Trades Association. Committee on industrial relations. Experience with group insurance Chicago, 122 S. Michigan Avenue, 1926.

to be more favorable in 22 cases and favorable in 24, while in 7 plants the employees were less in favor of it, in 1 plant they were indifferent, and 6 plants had given up the plan.

In general it is said the cost of group life insurance may be estimated at slightly more than 1 per cent of the pay roll, varying, however, with the scale of benefits and the average age of the employees covered. The average net cost to 46 companies which had a noncontributory plan was $14.10 per year per employee covered, while of 22 companies having a contributory plan the average net yearly cost per employee was $7.36. In reply to the question as to the advantages of group insurance to the company, several firms stated that it helped to stabilize the working force and that it improved the general morale and a few considered that its value lay in the opportunity it furnished to provide for the employees' dependents in a nonpaternalistic manner. The cost of the plan was mentioned most frequently by those firms replying as to the disadvantages of the plan, and a few companies stated that it led the men to neglect personal insurance, that the men would rather have the money in the pay envelope, and that the real effect was uncertain.

Group Welfare Insurance Plan of Delaware & Hudson Railroad

A COMPREHENSIVE plan of group insurance providing protection against the five major hazards of life—death, accident, sickness, unemployment, and old age—which was put in effect by the Delaware & Hudson Railroad in January, 1922, is described in the Bulletin of the Taylor Society for April, 1926.

Every employee of the company who had been employed for at least six months at the time the plan was adopted was given a life insurance policy without cost and without medical examination. If the length of service was more than six months but less than two years the policy was for $250, while for those who had been with the company more than two years the policy was for $500 with a total and permanent disability provision. This plan was amended a few months later to permit the employees to secure additional insurance by paying part of the premium on such supplementary insurance. Under this plan employees having less than two years' service could subscribe for $250 additional insurance while those having more than two years' service to their credit could take out $500 more or, if they wished, an amount equal to their average annual compensation for the preceding two years but not to exceed $5,000.

The employees may also take out insurance covering sickness and accident, exclusive of injuries covered by workmen's compensation laws. This pays a benefit of $15 per week for a period of 26 weeks beginning with the eighth day of incapacity. Further, employees may obtain insurance covering death and dismemberment from any accidental cause, including accidents covered by workmen's compensation laws, the amount of such insurance not to exceed the total amount of life insurance carried under the plan. The total cost of these two forms of insurance is paid by the employee.

Insurance against unemployment, which is carried by the company, provides that in case an employee has subscribed for and contributed toward the cost of at least two of the three forms of insurance he will

be insured against unemployment resulting from dismissal from any cause. This provides for a payment of $10 a week to employees whose average annual wages during the preceding two years did not exceed $1,000, and $15 for those whose wages were in excess of that amount, for a period of six weeks or so much of that time as the employee is unable to find employment.

A pension system is maintained by the company which provides for retirement at 70 years of age or, if totally incapacitated, at the age of 65, provided the employee has been in the service of the company 25 years.

During the three years 1922 to 1924 a total of $933,086.66 was paid out for pensions and benefits under the different insurance plans. In 1924, 123 out of 159 employees who died were insured under the group insurance plan. For the entire period during which the insurance has been in effect the average amount paid for the various claims has been: Death, $1,182.51; sickness, $105.12; accident, $77.73; accidental death and dismemberment, $1,616.66; total and permanent disability, $399.06; and unemployment, $73.28, while the average annual pension has been $449.21.

Prior to the inauguration of the group insurance plan comparatively few of the employees of this company carried any accident insurance and there was practically no sickness insurance carried. That the plan has been of benefit to the employees is said to be unquestionable both from the standpoint of the aid furnished to employees and their families in meeting expenses in the case of death, injury, or sickness and from the inculcation of thrift through the contributory features of the plan.

There was active opposition to the plan among some of the employees when it was inaugurated but this opposition is said to have disappeared, and in September, 1925, 11,417 employees, or 90.7 per cent of those eligible, were insured under the contributory provisions.

Unemployment insurance, which is comparatively rare in this country, varies in its details in the different companies having instituted it and according to the particular conditions of the industry. In the railroad industry, although the business fluctuates, there is little unemployment unless there is unusual business depression. For this reason and because the greatest turnover occurs among employees with less than two years' service the number of claims paid has been very small. Although about 68 per cent of the employees of the company were eligible for this form of insurance, according to a recent check only 103 claims were paid during the first three and one-half years that the insurance was in effect. The plan, however, is said by the writer to have materially aided in the stabilization of employment.

Recent Workmen's Compensation Reports

California

THE report of the Industrial Accident Commission of California for the year ending June 30, 1925, shows an increase of 2.7 per cent in the number of cases filed over the preceding year, the number being 3,163 as against 3,079 in 1924. The report is chiefly

administrative in its nature, and covers various departments of the commission—accounting, compensation, legal, medical, permanent disability rating, and safety—though statistics and a report of the State compensation insurance fund are also included.

The number of accidents reported during the year was 211,178, of which 89,069, or 42.1 per cent, caused disability lasting longer than the day of injury. The remaining cases caused no disability, but required medical attention other than ordinary first-aid treatment. Of the tabulatable injuries, 645 caused death, 1,215 caused a permanent impairment of at least 1 per cent, and 87,209 caused temporary disability. Of the fatalities, public utilities were responsible for 95, engineering construction for 75, lumber and wood manufacturing for 66, and building construction for 59. Farming, excluded in the great majority of States, caused 32 fatal cases, 40 permanent injuries, and and 5,115 injuries of a temporary nature.

The handling of objects caused 22,378 injuries, machinery 14,385, and falls of persons 11,721. The largest number of fatalities (174) was due to vehicles, machinery coming next with 120 cases, and falling objects not being handled by the injured person, 93. Cuts and lacerations numbered 26,793, and bruises and contusions 23,344.

The State fund is competitive with other insurance carriers, and rates for all are fixed by the insurance commissioner of the State. These rates are so made that about 59.4 per cent of the premiums go to pay compensation and medical expenses, the remaining 40.6 per cent being for expenses of operation. Inasmuch as the State fund's expenses of operation have averaged less than 15 per cent for the entire time that it has been in business, some 25½ per cent available as operation costs is returnable as dividends to policyholders. For some years sums were set aside to build up a catastrophe surplus as provided in the act. This amounted on June 30, 1925, to $2,156,988.78, which is deemed sufficient to take care of any catastrophe that may occur; this leaves the appropriation formerly made for this fund available for added returns to policyholders. Total premiums paid into the fund during its life amount to $37,499,332.65, and total dividends for the same period to $9,521,699.29. This does not include dividends on policies issued in 1925 and on unexpired policies of 1924.

Ontario

THE Workmen's Compensation Board of Ontario, in its eleventh annual report, covers in general the calendar year 1925, with revised final data for the operations of the act for the year 1924.

In the year 1925, benefits were awarded amounting to $5,565,443.39. This is more than a half million dollars less than for 1924, when awards totaled $6,122,820.34. There are two principal schedules, 1 and 2, the first including private industries in general, the second the operation of railroads, steamboat companies, and other public utility companies, and public employments. The first, by far the larger group, involved awards to the amount of $4,511,366.28, while in the second schedule the amount was $1,054,077.11. Medical aid formed about 19 per cent of the total, amounting for Schedule 1, to $875,836.01.

The number of accidents reported for the year was 60,012, as against 58,675 in 1924. Of these, 345 were fatal, as against 402 for the previous year. Medical aid only was required in 21,986 cases in Schedule 1 industries; temporary disability cases, 28,397; permanent partial disability cases, 2,036; and permanent total disability cases, 18. Death cases in Schedule 1 numbered 296.

Estimated pay rolls for the year amounted to $395,619,000 (25,681 employers), as compared with $387,085,000 in 1924 (25,155 employers). Administrative expenses for the year were somewhat increased, and since the compensation awarded was less than the previous year the ratio of such costs was advanced, being 4.84 per cent for 1925, as compared with 4.16 per cent for 1924. Average assessment rates in Schedule 1 for the year are provisionally $1.13 on every hundred dollars of pay roll. The average for the life of the act (11 years) was $1.10.

There are 24 classes of industries embraced in Schedule 1, each maintaining its own fund. The largest amount of premiums collected was from lumbering, $577,392.78; mining and explosives coming next with $542,990.09; building is third with an assessment total of $324,913.77. Compensation, pension reserves, medical aid, and other expenditures and charges amounted for lumbering to $674,086.32, for mining and explosives to $599,051.73, and for building to $423,477.73. A few industrial classes show deficits for the year, but an aggregate surplus of $165,787.94 results. The same conditions exist as to the totals for all years, 9 of the 24 funds showing deficits, but with a total surplus for all classes of $114,774.07.

In Schedule 2 industries each employer is individually liable for accidents to his workmen. As already stated, compensation awarded during the year in this class amounted to $1,054,077.11. Dominion Crown cases involved the largest amount, $468,747.65; steam railroads following with $281,726.33; and municipal corporations, etc., coming next with $166,764.86.

The entire operation of insurance is in a provincial fund including, besides the fund from which temporary payments are made, a pension fund, a disaster reserve, and a fund known as "compensation deferred," the last being made up of money held at interest for claimants to whom payments are deferred by reason of minority, or for other cause. The first two of these show an increase for the year, the pension fund now exceeding $13,000,000, the disaster reserve $265,610.03, and the deferred compensation fund $129,687.89.

Accident data for the year 1924 show total numbers, frequency rates, nature, cause, duration, etc. Cuts, lacerations, and punctures, are most numerous in temporary disability cases (8,801) followed by bruises, contusions, and abrasions (7,366), these two representing more than one-half of the total of 25,980 cases

The average time loss in temporary disability cases was 20.21 days, in permanent disability cases 85.92 days, while an average of 12.82 days intervened between injury and death in fatal cases. The average age in all cases was 34.76 years, and the average weekly wage $22.96.

Reciprocal Workmen's Compensation Agreement Between Argentina and Austria [1]

ON MARCH 22, 1926, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina and the diplomatic representative of Austria in Argentina signed a convention providing for the reciprocal treatment of their nationals as regards compensation for industrial accidents suffered by workers resident in the contracting countries. This agreement provides that workers of one of the contracting countries injured in the territory of the other shall have the same right to compensation which the local law concedes to its nationals. Government officials of both of the contracting countries are to notify the consuls of the other country as to the number of fatalities due to industrial accidents which have occurred in the respective countries.

Widows' Pension Act of New South Wales [2]

IN DECEMBER, 1925, the Legislature of New South Wales passed a widows' pension act, which, according to the Australian Worker of January 6, 1926, it was hoped to have in operation by February, 1926. This is the first act of the kind adopted in Australia. The pension is noncontributory and is to be awarded, subject to proof of character and need, to widows having one or more dependent children under 14. Its maximum amount is £1 [3] a week for the widow and 10s [3] for each child under the given age. The widow's total income from pension and all other sources must not exceed £78 a year, and if necessary the pension will be reduced to meet this requirement. The act is to be administered by a registrar and his deputies in each locality, and the whole cost both of pensions and administration is to be borne by the State.

Old-Age Insurance of Irregular and Migratory Workers in Belgium [4]

A LAW was passed in Belgium, December 10, 1924, providing for the compulsory insurance of workers against old age and premature death. By the terms of two decrees dated January 5 and 6, respectively, the provisions of the law are extended to irregular or migratory workers occupied in loading and unloading and repairing ships and boats and to workers employed by the day or half day at the homes of several employers.

Persons engaged as longshoremen or in the repair of boats are required to pay 10 centimes [5] into the insurance fund for each half day they are employed, while the employer is required to pay an equal amount. These payments are made each time the worker is paid, by means of a retirement stamp of 20 centimes affixed to the worker's insurance card by the employer. The worker is required

[1] Report from Peter A. Jay, the American ambassador at Buenos Aires, Argentina, dated Mar. 24, 1926.
[2] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, May 3, 1926.
[3] Pound at par=$4.8665, shilling=24.3 cents; exchange rate approximately at par.
[4] Comité Central Industriel de Belgique, Bulletin, Feb. 10, 1926, pp. 270-274. See Labor Review April 1925, pp. 155-157.
[5] Centime at par=0.193 cent; exchange rate in March, 1926, was 0.042 cent.

to turn this card in to the retirement fund each month and a new card is issued to him.

In the case of women and unmarried male workers under 18 years of age who are employed by the day or half day at different houses the employer is required to affix a stamp of 10 centimes for each half day's work and a stamp of 20 centimes for men over 18 years of age. Half of this payment is made by the employer. Four hours and less are considered as a half day and more than four hours as a full day's work. The insurance card is deposited with the insurance fund annually during the first eight days of the month following that in which the birthday of the insured person occurred.

HOUSING

Volume of Building Construction, 1914 to 1925

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics in the July and September, 1925, numbers of the Labor Review published articles showing the relative changes in the volume of construction in 130 identical cities year by year from 1914 to 1924. The 1925 figures as to volume of construction are now available.[1] The purpose of the present article is to show how much the country as a whole and the cities individually have, in the past few years, overcome the shortage in building occasioned by the war-time curtailment of construction.

The only figures of any considerable scope available concerning the value of buildings constructed each year are those shown by building permits issued by city building inspectors. The bureau has such figures for the period 1914 to 1925 for 130 identical cities.

In issuing a permit the builder or owner is required to state the cost of the proposed building. This cost may often be an underestimate, but it is believed that the percentage of underestimation has continued to be about the same. Further, a building planned is not always constructed within the calendar year of the date of the permit and in a few instances, perhaps is not constructed at all. However, as a grand total, it is believed that permit valuations afford a fair indication of the change in value of buildings constructed from year to year.

In using these figures it must be borne in mind that they relate to new construction of all kinds, covering both residential and nonresidential buildings. They are limited to the 130 cities for which the bureau has permit figures each year from 1914 to 1925. Further, the figures are restricted to city limits, and thus do not include buildings erected in suburbs.

TABLE 1.—INDEX NUMBERS OF VOLUME AND COST OF NEW BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN 130 CITIES, BY YEARS

[1914=100]

Year	Aggregate value of all building construction, as shown by permits issued	Index numbers of—						Ratio of cost of material to labor
		Permit valuation	Cost of building materials	Wage rates in building trades	Cost of constructing a typical building	Amount of building done	Population	
1914	$748,209,763	100	100	100	100	100	100	44.1 : 55.9
1915	776,228,606	104	102	101	102	102	102	44.3 : 55.7
1916	980,323,685	131	130	104	115	114	104	49.7 : 50.3
1917	649,961,875	87	171	111	137	64	107	54.9 : 45.1
1918	401,565,104	54	187	124	152	36	109	54.3 : 45.7
1919	1,258,875,108	168	218	142	176	95	111	54.8 : 45.2
1920	1,342,630,686	179	287	193	235	76	113	54.0 : 46.0
1921	1,602,232,041	214	179	196	189	113	115	41.9 : 58.1
1922	2,427,734,079	325	183	183	183	178	118	44.1 : 55.9
1923	2,959,051,393	396	205	203	204	194	120	44.3 : 55.7
1924	3,068,161,900	410	190	220	207	198	122	40.5 : 59.5
1925	3,550,572,815	475	191	228	212	224	124	39.8 : 60.2

[1] For detailed data on building permits see June, 1926, issue of the Labor Review.

Table 1 shows the aggregate value of all buildings erected as stated on permits issued in the 130 identical cities, from 1914 to 1925, inclusive, together with the index numbers of this value, of cost of building material, of wage rates in the building trades, of cost of construction with material and labor combined, of volume of construction, and of population.

The index number of the aggregate value of all buildings constructed was obtained by using the cost of buildings (as shown by permits issued) during 1914 as 100. The building material and wage rate indexes are those of wholesale prices of building materials and of union wages in the building trades published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

To obtain the index numbers of cost of construction it was necessary to get the proportionate cost of material and labor in building as of some one year, and to apply to these figures the change in price from year to year in the two items, material and labor. According to figures compiled by Mr. Barclay White, a builder of Philadelphia, and presented to both the Philadelphia and the national conference of construction industries early in 1921, skilled and unskilled labor together formed 36.99 per cent of the cost of building; and costs of materials, 42.88 per cent. The remainder of this cost is chargeable to supervision, insurance, engineering, etc. These figures are assumed to be as of 1920.

Mr. White's figures were based on records kept on eight buildings described as follows:

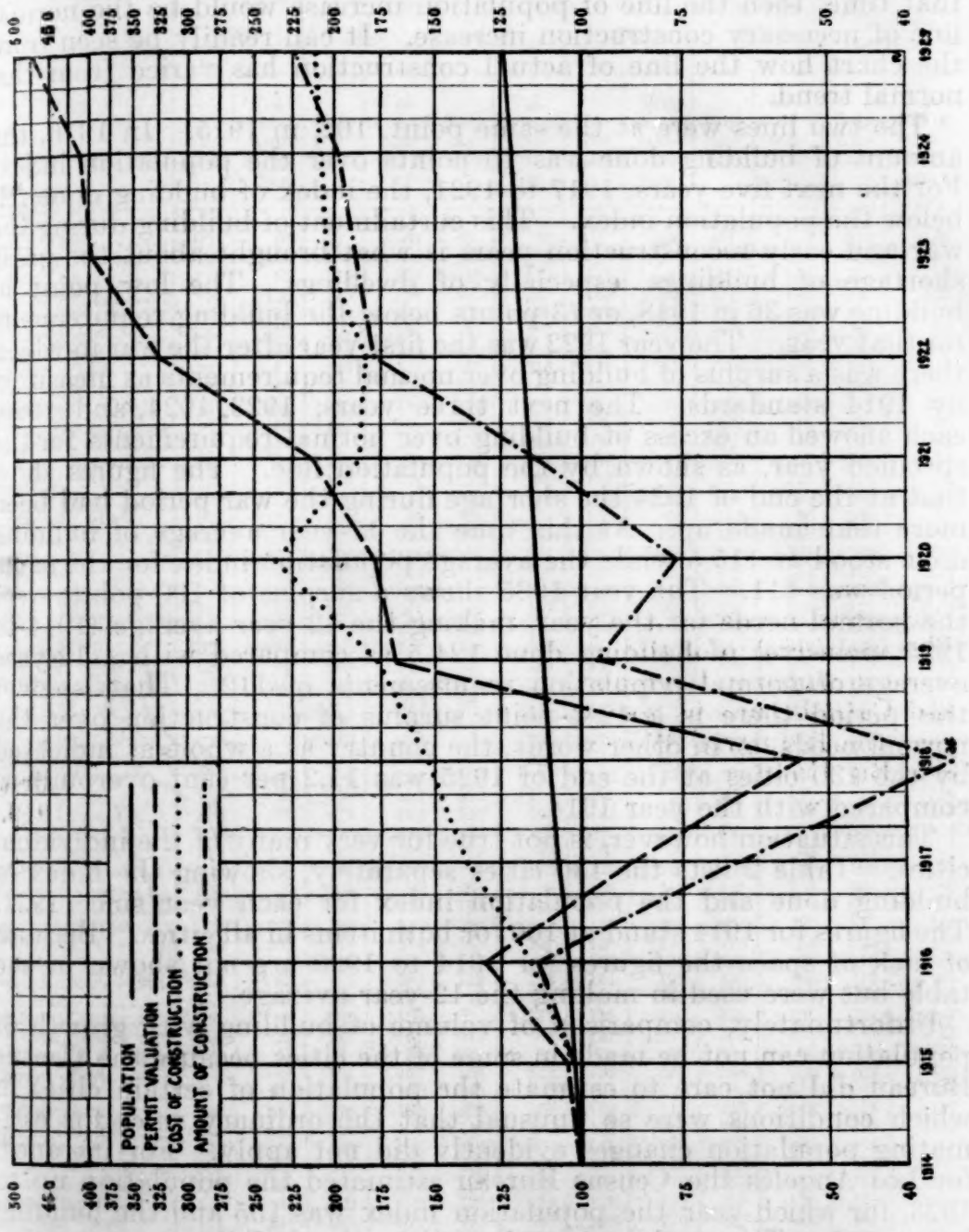
> The relative values of the various parts of the building have not been very carefully studied heretofore but we have made an attempt to fix an approximate proportion covering the whole building field in this territory. We have gone about this by taking a composite of building, which includes a reinforced concrete factory building; slow burning or heavy construction warehouse building with brick walls; the typical style of two-story dwelling; detached brick and frame residence; stone schoolhouse with wood floor construction; fireproof institutional building; the apartment house; and the steel frame office building. I think you will agree with me that these eight classifications come pretty near to covering the whole field in private building work.

According to Mr. White's figures the ratio of cost of materials to labor in construction in 1920 was 54 to 46. In 1920 the building-material wholesale price index number of the Bureau of Labor Statistics stood at 287 and the union wage index number at 193. From these figures it was found that the relative cost of material to labor in 1914 was 44.1 to 55.9. The year 1914 is the base year of the table as it is the earliest year for which permit valuation figures are available.

Assuming that the percentages of supervision, engineering fees, etc., have not changed, then the actual money costs of these items have advanced at the same rate as the composite increase of building material and wage rates. Adding this cost will make no difference in the index numbers for cost in the construction.

The index number for the amount of building done was obtained by dividing the aggregate valuation index for each year specified by the cost-of-construction index. The population index number was arrived at by using the population as estimated by the Census Bureau for 1914 as 100 in connection with the estimated or actual figures for the later years.

The chart illustrates in graphic form the information carried in Table 1.



As shown on the chart the aggregate value of all buildings constructed, after a sharp decline in 1917 and 1918, reached a peak of 475 in 1925; that is, for every dollar spent in building construction in 1914 there were spent $4.75 in 1925. On the other hand the cost of construction climbed steadily until a peak of 235 was reached in 1920; it declined to 183 in 1922, after which it rose each year, but in 1925 was still behind the level of 1920. In other words, a house which cost $5,000 in 1914 would have cost $11,750 in 1920, $10,350 in 1924, and $10,600 in 1925.

Chief interest, however, attaches to the lines showing the trends in amount of construction and in population. Assuming that the buildings existing in 1914 cared for the needs of the population at that time, then the line of population increase would be the normal line of necessary construction increase. It can readily be seen from the chart how the line of actual construction has varied from this normal trend.

The two lines were at the same point, 102, in 1915. In 1916, the amount of building done was 10 points over the population index. For the next five years, 1917 to 1921, the index of building done fell below the population index. This curtailment of building during the war and early reconstruction years is what brought about the great shortage of buildings, especially of dwellings. The low point in building was 36 in 1918, or 73 points below the building requirements for that year. The year 1922 was the first year after the war in which there was a surplus of building over normal requirements as measured by 1914 standards. The next three years, 1923, 1924, and 1925, each showed an excess of building over normal requirements for the specified year, as shown by the population line. The figures show that at the end of 1924 the shortage during the war period had been more than made up. At this time the 11-year average of building done stood at 115.5 while the average population index for the same period was 111. The year 1925 shows a surplus of 100 points over the normal needs for the year, making the 12-year average (1914 to 1925, inclusive) of building done 124.5 as compared with a 12-year average of normal population requirements of 112. That is, over this period there is a 12½-point surplus of construction over the normal needs, or in other words, the country as a whole as indicated by the 130 cities at the end of 1925 was 11.2 per cent overbuilt as compared with the year 1914.

This situation however, is not true for very many of the individual cities. Table 2 lists the 130 cities separately, showing the index of building done and the population index for each year since 1921. The figures for 1914 stand at 100 for both items in all cities. Because of lack of space the figures for 1914 to 1920 are not shown in the table but were used in making the 12-year average.

Unfortunately, comparison of volume of building with growth of population can not be made in some of the cities because the Census Bureau did not care to estimate the population of certain cities in which conditions were so unusual that the ordinary rules for estimating population changes evidently did not apply. For instance, for Los Angeles the Census Bureau estimated the population up to 1923, for which year the population index was 155 and the building index 565. Thus, while in this article the building construction index for the average of the 12 years can be given, it can not be compared with that of population because after 1923 the Census Bureau decided not to venture an estimate on population. Detroit, Mich., and Akron, Ohio, are other cities for which the Census Bureau has not made an estimate for each year. However, for most of the cities the population figures are available. In arriving at the population for the 130 cities as a whole the last estimate made was used where no estimate was made for the specified year.

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF POPULATION AND OF VOLUME OF CONSTRUCTION IN 130 IDENTICAL CITIES, 1921 TO 1925

[1914=100]

City	1921		1922		1923		1924		1925		12-year average	
	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction
Akron, Ohio	(1)	50	(1)	61	(1)	90	(1)	106	(1)	170	(1)	160
Allentown, Pa	133	50	136	96	140	124	144	135	148	216	122	93
Altoona, Pa	112	85	114	164	116	139	117	148	119	132	109	88
Atlanta, Ga	118	130	125	246	127	221	130	193	(1)	105	(1)	129
Atlantic City, N. J	107	133	108	142	109	121	110	154	111	175	105	109
Baltimore, Md	127	122	129	136	131	117	133	138	135	132	118	88
Bayonne, N. J	124	142	127	213	130	273	134	176	137	178	119	137
Berkeley, Calif	127	81	130	147	133	216	137	217	140	229	120	117
Binghamton, N. Y	123	48	127	122	130	114	134	96	128	96	118	72
Birmingham, Ala	121	112	125	139	128	188	131	300	134	259	117	120
Boston, Mass	106	58	107	141	108	94	109	123	109	145	105	98
Bridgeport, Conn	(1)	45	(1)	32	(1)	51	(1)	39	(1)	48	(1)	83
Brockton, Mass	111	74	113	86	114	96	116	97	107	67	108	73
Buffalo, N. Y	113	98	115	132	117	137	119	128	117	118	110	98
Butte, Mont	105	7	105	25	106	53	106	29	107	13	104	84
Cambridge, Mass	103	16	104	39	104	42	105	64	112	88	103	49
Camden, N. J	115	42	117	100	119	168	121	129	124	158	112	112
Canton, Ohio	146	143	152	234	157	294	163	296	168	301	134	193
Charleston, S. C	110	148	112	283	113	156	115	22	116	62	108	124
Chattanooga, Tenn	108	135	110	144	111	149	121	145	123	244	108	121
Chicago, Ill	115	85	118	151	120	197	122	180	124	213	112	112
Cincinnati, Ohio	103	101	103	177	103	145	104	143	104	186	102	114
Cleveland, Ohio	125	170	128	110	134	132	137	113	141	119	120	108
Columbus, Ohio	120	71	124	144	127	159	130	218	136	202	116	104
Covington, Ky	106	108	106	203	107	103	107	157	108	218	105	100
Dallas, Tex	151	154	156	200	161	243	170	264	176	264	137	143
Denver, Colo	113	141	115	262	117	264	(1)	324	121	312	(1)	156
Des Moines, Iowa	128	99	132	386	136	206	140	225	136	148	121	158
Detroit, Mich	(1)	109	(1)	181	(1)	225	(1)	275	182	303	(1)	158
Dubuque, Iowa	101	68	101	154	102	87	102	76	106	60	101	69
Duluth, Minn	117	70	119	152	122	119	124	124	127	119	113	124
East St. Louis, Ill	110	80	111	149	112	146	114	164	115	248	107	117
Elizabeth, N. J	120	146	122	234	125	218	(1)	238	(1)	319	(1)	165
El Paso, Tex	155	126	171	93	179	58	187	34	195	55	145	93
Fall River, Mass	101	60	101	185	101	173	101	144	108	120	101	107
Fitchburg, Mass	106	39	107	99	108	83	108	118	111	153	105	88
Flint, Mich	172	185	182	475	192	695	(1)	559	212	385	(1)	306
Fort Wayne, Ind	123	108	126	230	128	250	131	236	134	220	117	133
Fort Worth, Tex	126	109	138	176	163	191	168	244	175	183	129	163
Galveston, Tex	113	62	115	86	117	38	119	93	121	60	110	60
Grand Rapids, Mich	115	83	117	186	119	136	121	128	125	160	112	93
Harrisburg, Pa	114	238	116	165	118	363	119	261	121	127	110	152
Hartford, Conn	(1)	98	(1)	130	(1)	141	135	216	138	255	(1)	147
Haverhill, Mass	115	35	117	61	119	44	121	30	102	27	110	54
Hoboken, N. J	(1)	33	(1)	30	(1)	38	(1)	39	(1)	95	(1)	70
Holyoke, Mass	103	48	103	127	104	112	104	134	104	136	102	90
Houston, Tex	137	132	142	180	146	247	(1)	219	(1)	436	(1)	143
Indianaoplis, Ind	122	122	126	188	129	167	132	155	135	148	118	111
Jacksonville, Fla	140	161	144	187	147	222	151	211	141	415	126	150
Jersey City, N. J	108	174	109	295	110	277	111	248	112	309	106	161
Kalamazoo, Mich	115	130	117	140	119	175	121	143	124	179	112	112
Kansas City, Kans	114	82	125	167	127	199	134	173	127	159	114	111
Kansas City, Mo	119	81	122	123	125	124	128	103	131	178	115	94
Knoxville, Tenn	178	345	186	674	193	790	200	770	207	734	161	382
Lancaster, Pa	109	102	110	228	111	269	112	332	113	284	107	151
Lawrence, Mass	107	123	108	218	109	291	110	145	104	109	105	124
Lincoln, Nebr	116	90	119	278	121	156	123	150	125	331	113	149
Los Angeles, Calif	141	252	147	381	155	565	(1)	418	(1)	417	(1)	218
Louisville, Ky	102	98	111	240	112	221	112	264	133	318	106	132
Lowell, Mass	104	99	105	98	105	255	106	99	101	161	103	157
Lynn, Mass	108	32	109	43	110	65	111	82	110	98	106	56
Macon, Ga	120	72	122	128	124	108	126	126	128	122	116	100
Malden, Mass	107	111	108	119	109	195	110	290	112	240	106	132
Manchester, N. H	108	39	109	78	110	59	112	78	113	68	106	71
Memphis, Tenn	119	168	120	387	122	312	123	348	125	246	112	173
Milwaukee, Wis	113	137	115	172	117	222	119	223	122	151	110	128
Minneapolis, Minn	117	79	119	107	122	106	124	72	127	92	113	81
Mobile, Ala	112	68	114	72	116	98	118	109	119	217	110	69
Newark, N. J	113	100	115	157	117	176	118	202	120	187	110	117

[1] No estimate of population made by the Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF POPULATION AND OF VOLUME OF CONSTRUCTION IN 130 IDENTICAL CITIES, 1921 TO 1925—Continued

City	1921		1922		1923		1924		1925		12-year average	
	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction	Population	Volume of construction
New Bedford, Mass.	117	101	119	124	121	138	124	110	111	129	112	104
New Britain, Conn.	122	69	125	149	128	136	131	244	134	301	117	130
New Haven, Conn.	114	77	116	120	118	143	120	92	122	87	111	99
New Orleans, La.	110	157	111	255	112	232	114	278	115	263	108	154
Newton, Mass.	111	102	112	203	114	184	115	230	125	321	109	144
New York, N. Y.	112	203	114	305	115	335	117	350	114	418	109	192
Norfolk, Va.	127	133	131	142	166	130	172	157	(1)	68	(1)	118
Oakland, Calif.	127	177	130	283	134	283	138	319	142	391	121	173
Oklahoma City, Okla.	126	209	130	224	133	198	137	197	(1)	139	(1)	151
Passaic, N. J.	111	172	113	254	114	212	116	250	118	369	109	167
Paterson, N. J.	106	171	107	203	107	342	108	243	109	237	104	161
Pawtucket, R. I.	116	98	118	128	121	210	123	156	122	276	112	114
Peoria, Ill.	110	29	111	46	112	39	114	48	115	55	107	56
Philadelphia, Pa.	112	65	114	181	115	181	117	198	119	234	109	121
Pittsburgh, Pa.	108	68	109	93	110	90	112	86	113	136	106	73
Portland, Me.	112	76	114	146	116	194	117	131	119	83	110	102
Portland, Oreg.	116	94	118	148	120	149	122	170	124	219	113	101
Providence, R. I.	104	114	105	130	105	174	106	224	116	173	104	116
Pueblo, Colo.	102	185	103	245	103	132	103	244	103	334	102	161
Quincy, Ill.	103	30	103	77	103	114	103	140	(1)	111	(1)	74
Reading, Pa.	109	180	110	229	111	187	112	255	113	281	108	152
Richmond, Va.	126	145	128	237	130	226	132	194	134	271	122	146
Rochester, N. Y.	123	97	126	109	128	129	131	157	128	153	117	93
Sacramento, Calif.	114	108	116	221	117	204	119	159	121	230	111	114
Saginaw, Mich.	122	237	124	215	126	133	128	202	130	204	114	157
St. Joseph, Mo.	101	3	101	107	101	143	101	105	101	172	100	111
St. Louis, Mo.	109	60	110	107	111	159	112	150	113	202	107	102
St. Paul, Minn.	106	51	107	83	108	100	109	69	110	93	105	66
Salem, Mass.	(1)	20	(1)	26	(1)	20	(1)	48	99	33	(1)	38
Salt Lake City, Utah	117	84	120	83	122	105	124	87	126	93	113	80
San Diego, Calif.	147	158	153	202	160	215	177	266	195	310	139	127
San Francisco, Calif.	114	42	116	88	118	81	120	99	122	84	111	61
Savannah, Ga.	117	84	119	52	122	51	124	79	127	57	113	80
Schenectady, N. Y.	114	85	116	146	118	186	126	249	116	215	111	113
Scranton, Pa.	104	75	105	160	106	113	106	154	107	170	103	95
Seattle, Wash.	(1)	53	(1)	85	(1)	89	(1)	104	(1)	115	(1)	72
Somerville, Mass.	114	62	116	134	117	99	119	101	118	170	110	83
South Bend, Ind.	118	185	121	465	124	550	127	219	129	337	115	212
Spokane, Wash.	100	114	100	177	100	124	(1)	162	104	211	(1)	130
Springfield, Ill.	110	108	111	220	113	175	114	285	117	248	108	148
Springfield, Mass.	127	59	131	100	135	106	139	125	133	141	121	89
Superior, Wis.	(1)	31	(1)	107	(1)	28	(1)	43	(1)	99	(1)	67
Syracuse, N. Y.	117	90	119	158	121	147	124	134	120	165	113	109
Tacoma, Wash.	111	165	112	158	114	183	115	275	117	228	108	138
Tampa, Fla.	120	90	123	104	126	112	152	197	212	668	124	133
Terre Haute, Ind.	109	91	111	125	112	115	114	139	115	77	107	80
Topeka, Kans.	110	131	112	244	113	430	115	229	119	275	108	171
Trenton, N. J.	115	101	117	137	120	199	122	160	124	216	112	128
Troy, N. Y.	(1)	161	(1)	119	(1)	233	(1)	426	97	296	(1)	168
Utica, N. Y.	121	95	124	213	126	185	128	210	124	137	115	117
Washington, D. C.	(1)	137	(1)	269	(1)	243	129	226	132	298	(1)	154
Waterbury, Conn.	116	93	119	70	121	75	(1)	107	(1)	134	(1)	132
Union City, N. J.[2]	109	36	110	123	112	99	113	99	169	124	112	67
Wheeling, W. Va.	(1)	46	(1)	132	(1)	136	(1)	174	(1)	108	(1)	74
Wichita, Kans.	123	754	126	625	129	615	133	400	144	460	118	435
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	107	76	108	184	109	119	110	193	111	162	105	99
Woonsocket, R. I.	110	301	111	469	112	553	114	400	123	423	108	283
Worcester, Mass.	115	60	117	78	119	96	122	125	119	150	111	81
Yonkers, N. Y.	117	174	119	333	121	369	124	458	128	673	113	236
York, Pa.	104	112	105	145	106	204	106	301	107	328	103	135
Youngstown, Ohio	(1)	79	(1)	95	(1)	93	146	189	151	185	(1)	109

[1] No estimate of population made by the Bureau of the Census.
[2] Formerly West Hoboken.

New York Housing Law

AT ITS last session the New York Legislature passed a bill intended to facilitate the provision of low rental housing, which was signed by Governor Smith on May 10. The law provides for a State board of housing and for the formation of public limited-dividend corporations, the former to plan and supervise and the latter to undertake actual building projects. The State board is to consist of five members, appointed by the governor and serving without salary though receiving actual expenses. They are to study housing needs throughout the State, investigate alleged monopolies of building materials, prepare plans for housing projects, supervise the activities of limited-dividend corporations, appoint one member of the board of every such corporation, and exercise other supervisory and consultative functions.

The public limited-dividend corporations must consist of at least three members. The rents for housing erected by them must not exceed, in New York City, $12.50 a room per month, the bathroom not being counted as a room. Outside of the city the maximum is less, running down to as low a figure as $9 per room per month. Their dividends are not to exceed 6 per cent per annum. Should returns reach a figure which, after proper allowance for maintenance, depreciation, etc., would justify a higher dividend, the rents are to be lowered proportionately.

In order that these corporations may secure the land needed for the large-scale operations necessary in order to reduce costs, they are given the right of eminent domain. This power is not to be exercised except upon the specific authorization of the State board, which is not to give the authorization unless, after public hearings on the plan proposed by the corporation, it is apparent that there is urgent need for the accommodations which the corporation intends to provide and that the condemnation is in the public interest.

Public limited-dividend corporations are required to furnish, through the actual sale of stock for cash, one-third of the total cost of any project undertaken, the remainder being secured through bonds bearing 5 per cent interest on first mortgage and 5½ per cent on debenture bonds. No project may be undertaken without the approval of the housing board.

The corporations are to be exempt from the payment "of any and all franchise, organization, income, mortgage recording, and other taxes to the State, and also from all fees to the State or its officers." The bonds and mortgages of such corporations, together with the interest thereon and the dividends on the stock, are exempt from State taxation. The State can not exempt the corporations from local taxes on the buildings and improvements, but it empowers municipalities to do so and provides that whenever a municipality takes advantage of this permission the buildings and improvements shall be to the same extent exempt from State taxation.

Provision is also made for the formation of private limited-dividend housing corporations, which are not to have the power of eminent domain, but whose buildings and improvements are to be tax free so long as they remain in the hands of the corporation.

Public limited-dividend corporations are not permitted to dispose of property once acquired nor to make any real estate transfers. Private corporations organized under this law will, however, have this privilege.

Housing Situation in Germany, 1925 [1]

Results of Housing Censuses

IN ORDER to obtain authentic data on present-day housing conditions in Germany the Federation of German Municipal Statisticians resolved at its conference held in April, 1925, at Wiesbaden to combine with the preliminary investigation for a general population and occupational census a real estate and housing census. In pursuance of this resolution nearly all large and medium-sized German cities have taken housing censuses during the year 1925. A recent issue of the Reichsarbeitsblatt summarizes the results of these censuses and draws conclusions from them as to prevailing housing conditions.

Before giving here a summary of these results it must be noted that in former German housing censuses the term "Wohnung" (dwelling, apartment) was used as equivalent to household. Owing to the housing scarcity in postwar times many instances are to be found now in which two or more households (families) share one dwelling (apartment). In order to obtain a correct idea of actual housing conditions it was therefore decided to consider as a housing unit a dwelling (apartment) covered by a lease concluded directly with the owner of the house, or a dwelling occupied by the owner himself. Rooms sublet by the original lessee even when sublet to families are not considered as housing units, but are included in the dwelling of the original lessee. In addition, the number of households (families) sharing one dwelling was also enumerated.

On the basis of the housing censuses taken in various cities the German statistical office has computed the relative increase in population and in dwellings and the housing density per dwelling and per room in 1925 as compared with 1910. On the basis of the population and housing censuses it has further computed the present shortage of housing in the individual cities if every household (family) were to occupy a separate dwelling (house or apartment). The data resulting from these computations have been combined in the table following.

[1] Germany. Reichsarbeitsministerium. Reichsarbeitsblatt. Berlin, May 9, 1926. pp. 314*-318*

HOUSING CONDITIONS IN GERMAN CITIES, 1910 AND 1925

City	Per cent of increase from 1910 to 1925		Average number of persons living in—				Per cent of dwellings occupied by 2 or more families	Shortage of dwellings in 1925 per 1,000 inhabitants
			One dwelling		One room			
	Number of dwellings	Population	1910	1925	1910	1925		
Halle on the Saale	17.1	9.6	3.97	3.72	0.96	0.93	10.5	21.0
Leipzig	26.3	15.2	4.30	3.90				24.4
Mannheim	29.5	20.2	4.46	4.14			7.3	27.1
Hanover	21.0	13.7	4.10	3.80			9.1	39.8
Berlin	24.4	7.5					6.5	20.4
Bochum	12.5	12.7	4.68	4.63	1.29	1.25		18.7
Cassel			4.30	4.00			10.1	35.1
Hagen	[1] 23.6	2.6			1.18	1.16		
Düsseldorf	37.0	17.7			1.27	1.16	6.6	18.2
Rheydt		3.4						18.4
Bremen			4.40	3.70			7.3	
Hamburg			3.92	3.49	1.15	1.08		
Nuremberg				4.05			13.6	40.3
Liegnitz			3.68	3.45			6.4	28.7
Königsberg in Prussia						1.15	9.4	24.2
Brandenburg on the Havel							2.0	32.5
Regensburg							5.0	13.7
Würzburg							7.5	19.1
Speyer							7.0	18.0
Elbing							5.9	26.2
Merseburg							7.4	29.6
Sagan							4.7	16.0
Coblenz							8.0	30.0
Stolberg							6.4	16.0

[1] 1914.

At first glance the preceding table conveys the impression that the dwellings newly built in the period 1910–1925 ought to suffice for housing the increased population, for the statistics on increase in dwellings and in population indicate that in practically all cities the relative increase in dwellings was considerably greater than the relative increase of the population. This impression is still more strengthened by the statistics on housing density, which show that in all cities covered the housing density per dwelling and per room has decreased in 1925 as compared with 1910. It should, however, be noted that these statistics on housing density are not always comparable and are therefore misleading, for in postwar times in many of the old dwellings large rooms were partitioned off into two rooms and in newly built dwellings the rooms are as a rule smaller than in old dwellings. Thus many dwellings although composed of the same number of rooms, now have less floor space than formerly. The figures on housing density would therefore convey a more correct impression if they were based on the floor space available per person in 1925, as compared with 1910.

It would also be a mistake to draw conclusions as to the housing situation by comparing the relative increase in dwellings with the relative increase of the population. In the first place, the number of German households (families) has very considerably increased in postwar years. The recent housing censuses show in all cities covered a relatively high percentage of dwellings occupied by two or more families. This percentage ranges from 2 to 13.6 per cent, and, since it is the aim of the average family to found a home of its own and to occupy a separate dwelling, it must be concluded that a scarcity of dwellings really exists if "a dwelling for each family" is to be the housing standard. The number of new dwellings needed

per 1,000 inhabitants in the various cities in order to provide a dwelling for each household varies between 14 and 40.

The large increase in postwar times in the number of households in Germany is due to the extraordinary increase in marriages during the years 1919 to 1923. In 1913 the number of marriages of residents within the present German territory was 462,744, in 1919 it was 798,657; in 1920, 871,973; in 1921, 720,208; in 1922, 681,891; and in 1923, 581,277. In 1924 it fell to the normal figure of 440,071. On December 1, 1910, the married couples in the present German territory numbered about 10.5 million, while around the middle of 1925 their number was estimated to be 12.8 million. This means an increase of 22 per cent, while during the same period the population increased only 8.2 per cent. The number of households was also increased by German refugees who came from all parts of the world and by the large number of war widows who maintained separate households.

The housing censuses have also shown that in 1925 the households have become smaller than they were in 1910. In 1910 the average household was composed of 4.53 persons, in 1925 of 4.07 persons. This diminution in the size of the households is chiefly due to decreased births, discharge of servants, and losses in persons killed in the war.

Thus, the number of households in Germany has increased absolutely and relatively, while the households themselves have grown smaller. The number of dwellings has increased but the number of housing units has remained far behind the number of households (families). In spite of this unfavorable housing condition the average housing density has decreased as compared with pre-war times. Statistics have shown that the housing density is greatest in small and medium size dwellings, and that the construction of new small dwellings is therefore urgently needed.

The Government intends to make a general housing census in the spring of 1927. The results of this census will make possible the drafting of a building program and of effective measures against the housing scarcity.

Building Activity, 1919 to 1924

THE German statistical office collects monthly statistics on building activity throughout Germany. These statistics go back to 1919. In the following table is shown the housing construction for the years 1919–1924:

BUILDING ACTIVITY FOR HOUSING PURPOSES, 1919 TO 1924

Year	New buildings for housing purposes		Increase in dwellings			Loss of dwellings by demolition, fire, etc.	Net increase in dwellings	
	Total	One and two-story buildings	By new construction	By remodeling	Total		Number	Per 1,000 inhabitants
1919	21,465	18,792	35,596	25,265	60,861	4,147	56,714	0.94
1920	43,411	38,506	75,928	32,379	108,307	5,215	103,092	1.71
1921	66,786	59,570	108,596	32,902	141,498	7,275	134,223	2.23
1922	74,693	65,835	124,273	30,697	154,970	8,355	146,615	2.48
1923	54,824	45,233	100,401	25,539	125,940	7,607	118,333	1.89
1924	54,377	46,185	94,807	20,569	115,376	8,874	106,502	1.70
1919 to 1924	315,556	274,121	539,601	167,351	706,952	41,473	665,489	----

From the preceding table it will be seen that in 1919 housing activity was at low ebb. The net increase in dwellings in that year was equivalent to about one-fourth of the average annual increase in pre-war times. Even in 1922 when the building activity had reached its highest postwar level the production of new dwellings amounted to only three-fourths of the pre-war figures. In 1923 and 1924 there was a considerable falling off in building activity; the net gain in dwellings in the latter year fell short, by 27.4 per cent, of the net gain in 1922. Estimates for 1925 give the number of newly constructed dwellings as 130,000.

The table also shows that remodeled houses account for a large percentage of the increase in dwellings. In 1919 this percentage was 41.5 and in 1920, 29.9, falling to 17.8 in 1924 by reason of the fact that the number of houses suitable for remodeling became gradually exhausted.

Of the new houses built a very large percentage were one and two-story houses. In 1921 these small houses (*Kleinhäuser*) formed 89.2 per cent of all the new houses built. In 1919 each house built contained on an average three dwellings. In the five subsequent years (1920 to 1924) the average number of dwellings per house fell to 2.5, 2.2, 2.1, 2.3, and 2.2, respectively.

That the building activity in postwar times has been far from adequate is indicated by the fact that even in 1922 when postwar building activity had reached its highest level the gain in dwellings per 1,000 inhabitants was only 2.48, while the housing censuses in Baden and Saxony have shown that in 1924 the shortage in dwellings per 1,000 inhabitants was 12.

In view of the attempts to stop the influx of the rural population into the large cities it is also of interest to know how the building activity was distributed among the industrial and agricultural districts. The building statistics show that in spite of these attempts, construction in postwar years was greater in the central and western districts of Germany where the industrial population predominates, than in the eastern districts where agriculture is the principal occupation. They also show that in localities with less than 2,000 inhabitants, i. e., in rural towns, and in large cities with over 100,000 inhabitants building construction in postwar times has been considerably below the average for the whole country.

Another fact brought out by the building statistics is that the average size of the new dwellings constructed in postwar times has decreased as compared with pre-war dwellings. In Hamburg, for instance, dwellings of from 1 to 3 rooms formed 44 per cent of all dwellings built in 1921-1922 as compared with 27.5 per cent in 1912–1913. In Leipzig the pre-war percentage formed by dwellings of this size was 10.7 and the corresponding postwar percentage is 35.2.

COOPERATION

Trend of the Cooperative Movement

UNDER the title "The Cooperative Republic" the Cooperative Union of Great Britain has recently published a translation of a book by Ernest Poisson, secretary of the French National Federation of Consumers' Cooperative Societies.[1]

The cooperative society, it is pointed out, presents a thoroughly democratic organization, dividing its surplus in exact proportion to the member's purchases—i. e., to his loyalty to it—regardless of his capital investment; giving absolutely equal rights to every member and making the accumulated reserve fund the common property of all the members, no individual member having any claim upon it. The movement presents unlimited capabilities of expansion along economic lines. Membership is open to all consumers, and it is to the interest of the original members to gather new recruits, for each new member brings a certain purchasing power which helps to increase the business of the society and proportionally to reduce its expenses and increase its opportunities for serving the members. As the society grows, it naturally sells increasingly to the general public and as it sells at the normal or market price tends to become a regulator of prices in its locality, thus serving not only its own membership but all the consumers. Expansion into new lines of goods follows naturally as the society becomes more firmly established, with the idea of satisfying more and more all of the needs of its members. Food is the first want satisfied, clothing next, then heat, then housing and furnishings, "and afterwards, and only afterwards, the other requirements of consumers."

Presently arrives a time when joint purchase by the societies of a district becomes advisable and there results the establishment of a wholesale society organized on the same principles as the retail member societies. "The capacity for expansion of the wholesale societies is enormous and becomes greater as the base of the movement extends—that is, as the retail societies develop." When opportunity or need arises for production this is undertaken by the wholesale. "Day by day, one branch of production is added to another; extensions are made without ceasing. Cooperative wholesale societies will before long penetrate all spheres of industry." The transactions engaged in by the wholesale make a bank also a necessity and although at first cooperative wholesale societies make use of private banks, before long they undertake this business also, establishing either a banking department or a separate bank for the purpose.

Agriculture has been the ultimate step thus far engaged in by the consumers' cooperative movement. Only the oldest, most powerful, and most advanced of the wholesale societies have actually engaged

[1] Poisson, Ernest: The Cooperative Republic. (Translated by W. P. Watkins.) Manchester, England, The Cooperative Union (Ltd.), 1925. xvii, 226 pp.

in it up to the present, "but that all will do so is a foregone conclusion."

All this has taken place in the midst of the present economic system, and the author points out that (with the exception of the United States) cooperation has existed and become most prosperous just where the organization of capitalism is most highly developed. On the other hand, though it has originated under these circumstances, cooperation "succeeds at length in developing by itself a creative power which operates in all kinds of social circumstances."

Effect of Universal Cooperation

ASSUMING that cooperation included in its scope all the consumers of the world and supplied all their material needs, controlled wholesale commerce, manufacture, finance, and agriculture—in other words that the cooperative republic came to pass—the author endeavors to show the results upon the present system, economically, socially, politically, and morally.

He is of the opinion that the cooperative republic would bring to an end the increasing divergence between the methods and interests of consumer and producer. Whereas, at present, the emphasis is put upon the rights of the producers, disregarding the interests of the consumers who compose the whole body of citizens, under the cooperative republic the interests of the consumers would be paramount and production would be only incidental, being carried out only to fill the consumers' wants. The means of production and exchange would become the common property of the whole body of consumers.

Although socialization of means of production and of exchange is the end sought, the cooperative movement starts with society as it is, and works within it, transforming it and creating gradually but completely a new society. The cooperative movement educates as it goes, giving the members practical business experience, and developing their capacity. Cooperation, while recognizing the value of production and of the worker does not exalt labor as such. "After all, the end of life is not labor."

The author notes that "there are not many social movements which have called forth more disinterested service" than the cooperative movement. "Volumes would be needed to contain the histories at once simple, sublime, and so frequently repeated, of leaders of cooperation who had given their time, their health, and their savings in order to build up their store."

Limits of Cooperation

ALTHOUGH cooperation is possessed of limitless possibilities in the economic field, the author points out that "society does not consist simply of economic relations." Society has certain rights which are superior even to the rights of the consumer. Certain questions of morality, the administration of justice, social insurance, esthetics, etc., may be given attention by cooperative organizations, "but even when they take effective action they can not be said to do so in the consumers' interests. Undeniably it is the duty of society to deal with them for the sake of its own safety, but the cooperative movement may lend it assistance."

Organization of Labor

UNDER the cooperative republic every producer would also be a member of a cooperative society. "Thus everyone would be at once a servant of the republic and as a consumer a partner in its management, sharing in the new sovereignty." There would, however, remain the question of whether the present system of organizing labor should be retained or whether different methods should be sought.

Various methods have been tried by cooperative societies to induce in their employees an active interest in the welfare of the society. These methods have included profit sharing, participation in control, and responsibility in management. Profit sharing has been found unsatisfactory and discontinued by those societies (including the English Cooperative Wholesale Society) which have tried it. Participation in control also "does not seem to have worked very happily in practice," for the workers' delegates to the board of directors ordinarily give more attention to advancing the claims of the employees than to the good of the society. Some societies, however, have appointed employees to the board of directors, but as consumers, not as producers.

The author suggests responsible government as a possible solution—i. e., making the manager responsible for the success of the store and paying him according to sales. This, however, has the limitation of being workable only in a one-man or small-staffed store; otherwise there would always be the possibility of the manager's adopting speeding-up practices with the other employees in order to increase his own gains. The "commandite" system (the responsibility of the group) would, in the author's opinion, meet this objection.[2] An association of the workers would be intrusted with the labor organization of the store, factory, etc., and would be paid a sum reckoned on the sales or output.

Conclusion

THERE are great and innumerable difficulties in the way of realizing the cooperative republic and these are recognized by the author. Whether it will ever be fully attained depends in his opinion, on "how fully consumers understand its purpose and the alacrity with which they attach themselves to cooperative societies." How long it will take depends upon "the fitness of the means chosen to bring it to pass." The principal factors are coordination of effort and knowledge of the goal. The logical line of development sketched by the author is from local to regional society, to the establishment of the wholesale for commerce, manufacturing and production, and finance, then to the national society, then to international exchange and an international wholesale society.

The author emphasizes that the hypothesis of a cooperative commonwealth is not a product of fancy but is supported by the laws of evolution of human society.[3]

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[2] The operation of the commandite in the printing industry of France was described in the Labor Review for February, 1926, pp. 208–211.

[3] In support of this statement mention might be made of the fact that the movement has spread to nearly 40 countries, many of which have also established their own wholesale society. No national movement has as yet taken the step of forming one national society embracing all the local societies, though this has been seriously discussed in Great Britain. International exchange of cooperative goods is already taking place and the question of establishing an international wholesale is being studied. The proportion of population served by consumers' cooperation (i. e., cooperators and their families) ranges as high as 50 per cent, for example, in Hungary.

Cooperation in Foreign Countries

Germany

THE 1926 yearbook of the Central Union of German Consumers' Cooperative Societies [1] gives detailed statistics covering the various provincial unions as well as the Central Union and the Wholesale Society ("G. E. G."). The following table, compiled from the report, gives certain statistics of operation for the societies affiliated with the union and for the wholesale society, for the years 1924 and 1925:

STATISTICS OF OPERATION OF GERMAN CENTRAL UNION OF CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND WHOLESALE SOCIETY, 1924 AND 1925

[Mark=23.8 cents]

Item	Societies affiliated with Central Union		Wholesale Society ("G. E. G.")	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
Number of affiliated societies	1,166	1,113	821	894
Number of societies reporting	1,023	1,054		
Number of members	3,506,629	3,383,765		
Number of persons employed	42,350	42,641	3,598	4,327
	Marks	*Marks*	*Marks*	*Marks*
Total sales	555,553,082	854,368,720	168,466,278	228,169,471
Value of goods produced	116,698,969	205,981,117	26,298,325	35,339,389
Sales of goods produced	90,068,346	160,630,841		
Reserve funds	12,818,820	15,408,336	4,033,180	5,714,821

As the above table shows, the sales of the societies of the central union and of the wholesale increased 53.8 and 35.4 per cent, respectively. The goods bought from the wholesale society formed 26.7 per cent of the retail societies' sales and goods produced by the societies themselves, 18.9 per cent.

The table below shows the occupational distribution of the membership of societies affiliated with the union, in so far as reports were received on this point.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERS OF GERMAN CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES, 1924 AND 1925

Occupational classification	1924		1925	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Independent tradespeople	199,952	6.0	194,272	5.8
Independent farmers	116,417	3.5	113,080	3.4
Professional and public employees	328,651	9.9	316,473	9.5
Wage earners in industry	2,207,274	66.5	2,210,735	66.5
Wage earners in agriculture	99,586	3.0	92,381	2.8
No fixed occupation (pensioners, persons living on their income, etc.)	365,559	11.0	398,288	12.0
Total	3,317,439	100.0	3,325,229	100.0

An interesting account of a more or less uncommon type of workers' society is given in cooperative press release No. 34 of the International

[1] Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine. Jahrbuch, 1926. Erster Band. Hamburg, 1926.

Labor Office. These societies are the inland navigation societies of Germany.[2] The origin of these societies dates from the twelfth century, when regulations were established by special corporations to protect the boatmen. To-day these societies include 80 per cent of the German boatmen engaged in inland navigation. The report points out that "this percentage is the more remarkable, as organization is attended by greater difficulties in a trade the members of which are scattered and have no fixed domicile."

These societies undertake, through their agency, contracts for the transport and towage of goods. One of the largest societies is located in Berlin; this was founded in 1889 and in 1923 had 3,407 members. Recently these workers' societies have established auxiliary organizations to assist them along various lines. These secondary societies include those for repairing and building boats, supply societies, credit societies, etc.

The boatmen's societies have no federation of their own nor are they affiliated with any other federation. They have, however, agreements which enable their members to enjoy reciprocal advantages throughout the whole inland-navigation system.

Great Britain

Machinery for Settling Disputes With Employees[3]

A SCHEME providing for procedure in cases of disputes between the cooperative societies and their employees has been approved by the labor advisory committee of the British Cooperative Union and by the trade-unions concerned. It will still have to be ratified by the Trades Union Congress and the Cooperative Congress.

In case of failure of negotiations on wage questions or on general labor conditions, the matters of controversy are to be referred to a national conciliation board within 7 days and the board must take up the case within 14 days. Strikes and lockouts, in the meantime, are prohibited.

Panels of employers' and workers' representatives are to be established consisting of four representatives from each union and each section of the Cooperative Union. A trade-union directly concerned in any dispute has the right to select from the workers' panel six persons, in which number may be included its own four representatives on the panel. These six, together with six employers' representatives chosen in similar manner by the Cooperative Union, and an impartial chairman, form the board. The chairman is to be drawn from a panel of six persons serving in rotation.

A unanimous vote of the board must be accepted by both parties. If the vote is not unanimous but there is a majority in favor of terms of settlement the parties may agree to accept the decision, which shall then be binding. Failing either of the above, the parties shall be asked to accept the impartial chairman as arbitrator and if they agree to this his award is to be binding.

The expenses of the employers' representatives are to be borne by the Cooperative Union and those of the workers' representatives

[2] A similar, but deep-sea, navigation society was formed in 1918 in Italy (see issues of January, 1921, p. 135, and August, 1921, p. 199), but late reports indicate that it has been either seized or destroyed by the Fascists.
[3] International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Apr. 12, 1926, pp. 50, 51.

by the unions concerned. Other expenses are to be borne equally by the Cooperative Union and the trade-unions.

It is pointed out that arbitration is not compulsory and that this new agreement does not interfere with the functions of the wages and hours boards. It comes into play only if their efforts fail of acceptance.

Hungary

RECENT data regarding the cooperative movement of Hungary are difficult to obtain. Certain information as to the activities and status of the "Hangya" (cooperative union and wholesale society) are given in cooperative press release No. 34 of the International Labor Office. According to this report the affiliated societies in 1924 numbered 1,951 and their membership 870,549, which, taking into account the fact that the members of Hungarian societies are nearly all heads of families, means that in that year these societies supplied more than half of the population of the country.

At the end of 1925 the Hangya had in its employ 1,020 workers. Notwithstanding a considerable fall in prices of certain articles the Hangya's sales increased 31.35 per cent over those of 1924, and amounted to 719,839,188,000 kroner.[4] Its capital aggregated 30,178,581,000 kroner, and members' deposits (used as working capital) 46,471,151,503 kroner.

[4] Krone at par=20.3 cents; exchange rate is about 0.0014 cent.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND CONGRESSES

Labor Organization in Canada, 1925

THE following figures on trade-union membership in Canada in 1925 are taken from the fifteenth annual report on labor organization in Canada for that year, published by the Dominion Department of Labor:

	Branches	Membership
International craft unions	1,985	172,573
Industrial Workers of the World	6	10,000
One Big Union	53	17,256
Noninternational organizations	311	34,070
Independent units	40	[1] 12,165
National and Catholic unions	99	25,000
Total	2,494	271,064

The 1925 membership of the international unions was 17,908 less than that for 1924, while the members of the noninternational and independent unions gained, respectively, 12,309 and 264 members. The membership of three locals of the independent unions, however, is not included in the report. The number of members in the national and Catholic unions was the same in 1924 as in 1925. In this latter year the Industrial Workers of the World lost 1,500 members. The One Big Union's 1925 membership was 17,256, according to the first report received from that organization's headquarters since 1919. Balancing the losses and gains of the four groups of unions other than the One Big Union and the Industrial Workers of the World, it will be noted that the combined membership of the international, noninternational, independent, and national Catholic unions decreased in 1925 by 5,335 members.

Of the 87 international craft organizations with one or more local unions in the Dominion, 13 have more than 5,000 members in the Dominion while the Canadian membership of four of these bodies is above the 10,000 mark, being 14,409 in the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, 13,700 in the Canadian Brotherhood of Railroad Employees, 12,500 in the United Mine Workers of America, and 11,584 in the Brotherhood of Railway Carmen.

Proceedings of the All-India Trade-Union Congress[2]

THE sixth session of the All-India Trade-Union Congress was held in Madras, January 9–10, 1926, with 110 delegates in attendance. The report of the general secretaries showed that 52 unions, with a membership of over 125,000, are affiliated with the

[1] For 34 branches.
[2] All-India Trade-Union Congress. Report of the sixth session and congress constitution. Bombay, 1926.

congress. Of these, 15 are railway unions, 10 textile unions, 7 are organizations of general laborers, 7 those of transport workers other than railwaymen, 3 those of seamen, 2 those of postal and telegraph workers, 2 those of commercial employees, 2 those of employees in the paper and printing trades, and 1 each those of workers in the engineering, mining, iron and steel, and chemical industries.

The president's address contained a review of trade-unionism in India, in which he pointed out that practically the whole development of the movement has taken place since 1918. The congress was founded four years ago as a means of coordinating the work of the unions in different industries, and has been successful along these lines. An account of the leading unions was given, with particular attention to the principal strikes during the last year and to the help that the congress has been able to give, notably in the case of the long and finally successful strike in the Bombay textile industry. (See Labor Review, February, 1926, p. 226.)

A number of resolutions were passed, covering the whole field of labor interests. A very strong protest was made against the proposed anti-Asiatic legislation in South Africa, and an appeal was made to the South African Labor Party to withdraw support from these measures "in the interest of the international solidarity of the workers." In the way of general labor demands, the congress asked for a standard eight-hour day, for primary and technical education for workers, for equality of treatment in the civil service, for legislation forbidding deductions from wages on account of fines, for public employment bureaus, and for measures of social insurance. In view of the number of woman workers, they asked for more woman factory inspectors, for maternity benefits and the grant of a period of leave before and after confinement, for the establishment of day nurseries for the children of woman employees, and for the prohibition of the employment of women underground in mines. A number of resolutions dealt with the grievances of workers in special industries. Modifications of the trade-union bill now before the legislature were asked, such as would make it agree with the provisions of English law on the subject. Finally, a carefully worked out scheme was indorsed for giving labor adequate representation in the central and provincial legislatures of the country, with the further proviso that the representatives should be elected, not appointed by the Government.

Membership of Fascist Unions in Italy, 1924 and 1925

RECENT statistics published by the Confederation of Fascist Corporations [1] show that the membership of the corporations (unions) has increased from 1,764,393 on December 31, 1924, to 2,150,511 on December 31, 1925. The table following shows the distribution of the total membership among the individual corporations.

[1] Confédération des Corporations Facistes. Bureau de presse. Bulletin d'informations syndicales, Rome, May 8, 1926.

MEMBERSHIP OF FASCIST CORPORATIONS, DECEMBER 31, 1924 AND 1925

Kind of corporation	Dec. 31, 1924	Dec. 31, 1925	Kind of corporation	Dec. 31, 1924	Dec. 31, 1925
Agriculture	694, 842	724, 900	Hotel industry	41, 650	47, 850
Mining	45, 565	76, 390	Fishing	21, 203	26, 450
Metal working	134, 070	184, 200	Sanitary industries	22, 475	26, 825
Textile	57, 595	111, 800	Intellectual workers	40, 534	56, 904
Chemical industry	63, 765	110, 991	Teachers	30, 335	38, 855
Water, gas, and electricity	18, 825	23, 100	Actors, artists, etc	32, 920	45, 420
Glass industry	14, 665	18, 910	Private salaried employees	185, 000	192, 500
Building and construction	124, 665	142, 476	Manual workers, Government	19, 735	24, 841
Paper and printing	15, 789	23, 630	Forest workers	----------	34, 210
Food industries	31, 925	62, 100	Miscellaneous occupations	35, 595	----------
Furniture industry	13, 230	21, 436			
Clothing industry	19, 885	31, 108	Total	1, 764, 393	2, 150, 511
Transport	100, 125	125, 495			

The confederation publishes at Rome a journal, Il Lavoro d' Italia (Italian Labor), which up to April 21, 1926, was issued weekly. Since that date the journal has been published as a daily paper, which in addition to local and foreign labor news prints all the important local, national, and foreign news of general interest. The confederation and the national corporations have raised an initial fund of 2,450,000 lire [1] for the support of this daily journal, and the 76 provincial federations have each contributed 10,000 lire to this fund.

[1] Lira at par=19.3 cents; exchange rate in April, 1926, was approximately 4 cents.

WORKERS' EDUCATION

Recent Developments in Adult Workers' Education in the United States

ONE of the most significant of the postwar labor developments in the United States is the rapid extension of the workers' education movement. The purpose of this movement is to provide better facilities for the training of labor leaders and for the broader education of all workers. At the close of the war only occasional experiments of this kind had been made in this country. As late as 1920 a survey made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics of adult working-class education in Great Britain and the United States (Bulletin No. 271) found very few examples of workers' educational undertakings in the United States.

Thereafter, however, the movement spread rapidly, and early in 1926 the secretary of the Workers' Education Bureau reported an enrollment of over 40,000 students in workers' colleges or study groups in more than 300 industrial centers in some 40 States.[1] By 1926, also, there were full-time directors of workers' education in a number of States. Practically all of these activities, it is interesting to note, are financed by labor itself.

The present article summarizes some of the more interesting of these enterprises, as reported in various published sources.

Workers' Education Bureau

PROBABLY the most important present influence in workers' education is the Workers' Education Bureau. This organization was founded in April, 1921, by a small group of teachers and trade-unionists who were convinced of the need for "a national clearing house of information and guidance for American workers' education."[2]

The aims and activities of the central agency were made the subject of careful study by the executive council of the American Federation of Labor, and the bureau was given the "most cordial support" by the education committees of the 1922 and 1923 conventions of the federation, while the delegates at the latter meeting recommended the affiliation of the various unions with the bureau. At the 1924 convention, held at El Paso, the following plan of the executive council of the federation was unanimously adopted:

1. That each national and international union provide each year an education fund equivalent to one-half cent per member per annum.
2. That this educational fund be paid quarterly to the Workers' Education Bureau for the educational service to their membership.
3. That the local unions be urged to undertake active affiliation with the Workers' Education Bureau and pay an annual membership fee of one dollar for the regular educational service of the bureau.

[1] American Federationist, Washington, March, 1926: "Five years of American workers' education."
[2] Idem, p. 336.

The report of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor to the 1925 convention of that body declared that "the Workers' Education Bureau of America * * * may now be said to constitute an essential part of the educational service of the American Federation of Labor."

In the first half of 1925, 41 unions became actively affiliated with the bureau in conformity with the plan agreed upon at the El Paso meeting, and at the present time the affiliated bodies include almost 500 national and international unions, State federations of labor, and central and local labor unions in various parts of the United States. (American Federationist of March, 1926.) According to its amended constitution the purpose of the bureau is to collect and disseminate information concerning organized labor's educational efforts and to coordinate, assist, and stimulate such efforts. Any labor organization not dual or seceding in character is eligible for membership, as are also "all workers' educational enterprises under trade-union control and devoted to general education for workers." Annual membership dues for the different groups of organizations and individuals are as follows:

1. International and national trade-unions, one-half cent per member per year, payable quarterly.
2. State federations of labor, $10; central labor unions, $5; local unions, $1; other forms of trade and labor organizations, $5.
3. American Federation of Labor, $100.
4. Workers' study classes and trade-union colleges, $2 per class or $1 for each local union affiliated therewith.
5. Honorary members, $100; sustaining members, $25; contributing members $10; cooperating members, $5; associate members, $2.

The constitution provides that the bureau's executive committee shall consist of the president and secretary of the association and 9 other members to be selected or elected as follows: One to represent State federations of labor, city central bodies, local unions, and other forms of labor organization; two to represent workers' educational enterprises; three to represent the American Federation of Labor; and three to represent international and national trade-unions.

The constitution provides for biennial conventions. Among the problems discussed at the 1925 convention of the bureau were: Education and social program, education and industrial peace, and education and international peace. At this meeting James H. Maurer, president of the Pennsylvania State Federation of Labor, was reelected president of the bureau and Mr. Spencer Miller, Jr., was again chosen to serve as secretary.

The character of the education aimed at places emphasis upon economic and labor subjects but by no means neglects the so-called cultural branches. Thus, at the 1925 convention recommendation was made to include in a labor college curriculum the following subjects: [3]

1. Labor history; Trade-union problems, policies, and aims; Labor and State.
2. History, with emphasis on social and economic forces and systems.
3. Economic geography.
4. Economics, particularly in relation to the industry of the group taught.
5. Social psychology and sociology.
6. Labor law and legislation.

[3] Workers' Education, New York, August, 1925, p. 5.

7. Public speaking and parliamentary law, as far as possible in connection with the subject matter of other classes.
8. Literature, with emphasis on social interpretation.
9. English, with use of textbooks that are of value from a labor point of view, and with exercises of practical value to trade-unionists.
10. Health, with special reference to industrial conditions.

The bureau has instituted a monthly news service for its members, for labor colleges, and for the labor press, and also furnishes outline lessons on psychology, economics, and other subjects to some of the official labor organs. Correspondence courses on various subjects are in preparation.[4] An increasing amount of literature especially adapted to labor's needs is being issued under the auspices of the Workers' Education Bureau.

The titles of some of these publications as given in the report of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor to its 1925 convention (p. 64) are as follows:

Workers' Bookshelf:
- Vol. 1. Joining in Public Discussion, by Alfred Dwight Sheffield.
- Vol. 2. The Control of Wages, by Walton Hamilton and Stacy May.
- Vol. 3. The Humanizing of Knowledge, by James Harvey Robinson.
- Vol. 4. Women and the Labor Movement, by Alice Henry.
- Vol. 5. The Labor Movement in a Government Industry, by Sterling D. Spero.
- Vol. 6. A Short History of the American Labor Movement, by Mary Beard.
- Vol. 7. Readings in Trade-Unionism, by David Saposs.

Workers' Education Pamphlet Series:
1. How to Start Workers' Study Classes, by Broadus Mitchell.
2. How to Run a Union Meeting, by Paul Blanshard.
3. Workers' Education, by Arthur Gleason.
4. The Voluntary Basis of Trade-Unionism, by Samuel Gompers.
5. The American Federation of Labor, by Matthew Woll.
6. Child Labor, by William Green.
7. How to Keep Union Records, by Stuart Chase.
8. The Women's Auxiliary and Workers' Education, by Theresa Wolfson.
9. The Public Library and Workers' Education, by E. C. Lindeman.

The following volumes and pamphlets were in active preparation:

Workers' Bookshelf:
- Cooperative Railroading, by Otto S. Beyer, Jr.
- Economic Institutions, by Willard Thorpe.
- Policies of American Trade-Unions, by Leo Wolman.
- Our Ancient Heritage, by Alexander Goldenweiser.
- Case Book on Industrial Arbitration, by George Soule.
- Cooperative Movement, by Dr. James Warbasse.
- Workers' Health, by Dr. Emery Hayhurst.

Pamphlets:
- Workmen's Compensation, by Thomas Donnelly.
- Workers' Health, by Dr. George M. Price.
- The Labor Injunction, by John P. Frey.

The president of the American Federation of Labor has requested the Workers' Education Bureau to "direct studies of specific problems upon which the labor movement needs additional data and dependable research information."[5] One of the first studies the bureau is undertaking at President Green's request is on labor-saving devices in the home.

[4] The American Labor Year Book, 1925, New York, 1925, p. 207.
[5] American Federation of Labor. Report of executive council to the forty-fifth annual convention, held at Atlantic City, Oct. 5, 1925. Washington, 1925?, p. 65.

Brookwood Labor College

BROOKWOOD Labor College, at Katonah, 40 miles from New York City, entered its fifth year of existence October 19, 1925, with a registration of 40 students, representing 18 trade-unions and 13 nationalities, exclusive of students from foreign countries. This resident coeducational institution was established to "provide special training for leaders in the labor and farmer movements." [6] The regular Brookwood course extends over two school years of eight months. Special provision is made, however, for students who are unable to remain for more than a year. Most of the domestic work of the college is done by the students themselves under a scheme of weekly assignment by a special committee. The subjects taught include American and foreign labor history, trade-union organization and administration, social psychology, economics, use of English, public speaking, parliamentary law, labor journalism, and dramatics, the last two mentioned courses having been added for the 1925–26 session. Brookwood is supported mainly by scholarships and donations from international, State, and local trade-unions, which are supplemented by individual contributions and endowment funds. The minimum annual charge for a student who pays his own way is $200.

In both 1924 and 1925 teachers engaged in workers' education met in conference at the Brookwood school. The subject of the first conference was "The technique of classroom teaching"; that of the second conference, "The technique of mass education."

The members of the faculty, recently increased by four, have all had active experience as workers and officers in the labor movement, and "are organized as Local 189, American Federation of Teachers." On February 20–22, 1926, under the auspices of this local the third annual conference of teachers in the workers' educational movement was held at the college. In addition to the monthly publication of the Brookwood Review, a weekly syndicated labor education service has been inaugurated by the college.

Railroad Labor Institute

The Railroad Labor Institute in session from August 2 to 9, 1925, at Brookwood College was a pioneer undertaking of its kind. Among those who attended the conference were locomotive firemen, boiler makers, sheet-metal workers, stationary engineers, firemen, oilers, machinists, maintenance-of-way men, carmen, railway clerks, and presidents and vice presidents of railway labor organizations.[7] Included in the numerous subjects discussed were the activities of the Cuban railway unions, labor's gains through legislative activities, the operation of the so-called Rockefeller plan in the Colorado steel plants and coal mines, and the giant power movement.

In the judgment of the president of the railway employees' department of the American Federation of Labor, this railroad conference "constitutes one of the most significant steps yet taken in workers' education." [8]

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[6] The Brookwood Review, Katonah, N. Y., Dec., 1925, pp. 1, 4.
[7] American Federationist, Washington, October, 1925, p. 935.
[8] Idem.

The railroad institute was followed by a general labor institute open to all trade-unionists. Students came from most of the States north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi, representing a variety of trades. A number of university men were invited to the institutes as guests.

A giant power conference organized by the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers and the faculty of Brookwood College will be conducted at that school from July 16 to 31, 1926. Engineers, economists, and political leaders will be among the speakers. As a preparation for the summer meeting the subject was discussed briefly at a preliminary conference of the college in March, 1926.

This power institute will be followed by the second annual railroad conference. The college is also planning a summer institute for textile workers and a general labor institute of two weeks.

Educational Activities of International Union of Ladies' Garment Workers

THE International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union was one of the first labor organizations in the field of workers' education in the United States.[9] The principle was approved at the Cleveland convention of the organization in 1914, and in the winter of 1917–18 the New York Board of Education allowed the use of four public schools as unity centers where popular lectures and courses might be given and meetings held under the auspices of the union The Workers' University, which opened early in January, 1918, under the same auspices, is located in the Washington Irving High School, New York City.

By 1923–24 there were eight unity centers operating in New York City and two others were organized, one in Boston and the other in Philadelphia. According to a report made to the eighteenth convention of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, held in December, 1925, the educational department of the organization had expanded and improved its work in the preceding 18 months. Numerous educational, health, and social activities were being carried on in the unity centers, and classes of an advanced character were being conducted at the Workers' University and at the I. L. G. W. U. Building.

Among the subjects offered for study at the centers and the university are: Trade-union policies and tactics; current labor problems; economic problems of the working woman; woman's place in the labor movement; labor situation in the basic industries; the place of workers in history; a social study in literature; the development of industry and the trade-union movement in the United States; economics and the labor movement; public speaking; social factors in American history; the making of industrial America; recent social developments in Europe; economic basis of modern civilization; psychology and the labor movement; and English.

The extension division was continued for the convenience of those workers who found it difficult to attend the classes. Educational programs were also planned for the members of the executive boards of local unions, and for promising young men and women, members

[9] Levine, Louis: The Women's Garment Workers, A History of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, New York, 1924.

of the organization, while higher courses were to be arranged for business agents and officers of the local unions of the international body.

The union health center has inaugurated a special health education campaign among the members of the organization and has in preparation leaflets, for distribution on request, concerning diet and the various diseases to which garment workers are subject.

Program of the Cloth Hat, Cap, and Millinery Workers

THE fifteenth biennial convention of the Cloth Hat, Cap and Millinery Workers' International Union, May 1 to 11, 1925, approved the educational work of the organization and its affiliation with the Workers' Education Bureau of America and decided upon more systematic and intensive educational activities for the next two years.[10] All locals were instructed to appoint educational committees to cooperate with the general education committee to be appointed by the general executive board.

The following plan was agreed upon by the general education committee and approved by the general executive board, in August, 1925.

1. The committee shall have a meeting with the executive board of every local union in New York City to discuss and agree upon a program of educational work. Every local union may arrange its own educational work as it deems best. Whatever work the local may arrange, such as classes, forums, etc., will have the full cooperation of the general education committee.
2. The locals shall be urged to distribute the history of our union among our membership and to promote the sale of books on various phases of the labor movement published by the Workers' Education Bureau.
3. An open forum shall be established on general labor problems to consist of a series of lectures and discussions under the auspices of the general education committee.
4. Arrangements shall be made for 12 musical evenings with lectures and talks on current problems of the labor movement, to take place during the fall and winter.
5. [The librarian of the committee] was instructed to prepare a series of outlines to be used by the local officers at regular shop meetings for an introduction to a discussion on various trade-union and labor problems connected as far as possible with the current problems of the organization. Such an introduction not to take more than 20 minutes. The outline shall also contain recommended readings on the subject.
6. To invite active members and shop chairman to write to The Headgear Worker about general union and shop problems, making any inquiries which are to be answered and explained by the editor in a special column devoted to this purpose. The Headgear Worker shall also devote some space to the outlines of lectures or educational articles which are especially necessary for the locals outside of New York.
7. The expenses of the educational activities shall be met partly by the local unions and partly by the general office, the contribution of the general office to be used primarily for the smaller locals who are not in a position to spend much for educational work.

Educational Activities of the Fur Workers[11]

FOR the winter season, 1924–25, the International Fur Workers' Union of the United States and Canada promoted an educational program for the union's members and their families. This

[10] The Headgear Worker, Long Island City, May 29, 1925, and Sept. 25, 1925.
[11] The Fur Worker, Long Island City, October, 1925, pp. 9–10.

plan included a class in elementary arithmetic and English and also higher courses in the Rand School of Social Science. Lectures were given on current topics and occasional concerts were also included in the educational program.

The contribution of the international office to these educational activities in New York was over $1,100. The office also allocated $200 to a Chicago local and $100 to the St. Paul locals for similar programs.

Schools for Women

AMONG the more important educational undertakings for woman workers are the National Women's Trade Union League school for woman organizers, the Bryn Mawr Summer School, and the summer sessions attended by woman workers at the University of Wisconsin.

National Women's Trade Union League Training School

The establishment of a school to train women in trade-union organization work was recommended at the 1913 convention of the National Women's Trade Union League of America and within the year the school was started in Chicago under the management of the officers and members of the league's executive board and a special committee. This school makes special academic training possible for trade-union girls who have shown an aptitude for leadership through work in their own locals. Under an arrangement with the educational department of the league the woman workers of this school are admitted as "unclassified students" for three months in the labor problems class under the general political economy course at the University of Chicago. This three months' course is followed by field work and office practice. All five students for 1924–25 passed their university course. The educational opportunities afforded by this training school are made possible through the practical cooperation of friends of the National Women's Trade Union League of America.[12]

Classes in English, parliamentary discussion, psychology, economics, literature, and sex hygiene have been organized by the Women's Trade Union League of New York and several other branches of the national league are cooperating in the workers' educational activities in their respective localities.

Bryn Mawr Summer School [13]

The Bryn Mawr summer school was inaugurated in 1921. The fifth session of eight weeks held in 1925 was attended by over 100 working women. About 400 others from numerous industries had previously availed themselves of the opportunities afforded through this educational venture.

All the students follow courses in economics, English composition, public speaking, and hygiene. English literature, general science or psychology, music, and history are elective. The subjects are taught by 11 instructors from eastern and middle western colleges and universities.

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[12] Life and Labor Bulletin, Chicago, May, 1925, p. 3.
[13] American Federationist, Washington, August, 1925, pp. 654, 655: "Bryn Mawr summer school," by Dr. Amy Hewes.

The composition courses are especially popular. When there was some question of the money needed to enlarge the teaching staff for such courses, the president emeritus of the college, M. Carey Thomas, declared: "We must have this additional assistance even if it means cutting somewhere else, for the school will be missing one of its real opportunities if it does not do all it can to help the labor movement find a voice and pen."

The sense of freedom at the Bryn Mawr summer school is due to the fact that its operation is completely in the hands of a council made up of the faculty and students, which is responsible only to the joint administrative committee which has charge of the college building and grounds in summer.

Miss Mary Anderson, Director of the United States Women's Bureau, has voiced her expectations concerning the experiment as follows:[14]

> From the students in the Bryn Mawr school we hope to develop leaders among the women workers who will be a vital factor in broadening the life and environment as well as bettering the working conditions of their sisters. On the other hand, the women workers will make a definite contribution to the educational standard of the colleges. They are the exponents, the concrete embodiment of the result, of existing economic conditions. The different quality of the knowledge, and the utilization of it in our educational systems, is full of possibilities. Bryn Mawr College has perceived this. Her leadership in the establishment of this school is full of significance and hope for broader future basis in public education.

Wisconsin University Experiment[15]

A summer school for working women was started in 1925 at the University of Wisconsin and fitted into the regular summer sessions, which were attended by over 3,000 men and women. The 40 working women from 9 middle western States who constituted the newly inaugurated school took courses in English, economics, and physical education which were especially adapted to meet the needs of women wage earners. Teachers acted as leaders and counselors in class discussions, many of which were held in the open on the university campus.

The expenses of these students were defrayed by various organizations—alumnæ groups, women's clubs, local sections of the Young Women's Christian Association, and trade-unions.

Characteristics of Trade-Union Colleges

AS STATED above, there are workers' colleges or classes in more than 300 industrial centers in some 40 States. Lloyd M. Crosgrave, field representative of the Workers' Education Bureau, sets forth some of the prevailing practices in such enterprises as follows:[16]

> 1. The workers' college usually consists of one or more classes conducted by adequate instructors. In addition to this, there is usually an open forum where matters of importance are thoroughly discussed.
>
> 2. The college is, as a rule, carried on under the auspices of a local labor organization. Generally it is the central trades and labor assembly in the particular

[14] Gleason, Arthur: Workers' Education, revised edition; American experiments, New York, 1921, p. 59.

[15] American Federationist, Washington, October, 1925, pp. 943-945: "Wisconsin's summer school for working women," by John P. Troxell.

[16] American Federationist, Washington, August, 1925, pp. 687, 688.

city where the college exists, although there are cases in which trade-unions have their own college.

3. The students in the workers' college are, for the most part, adult wage earners.

4. The workers' college is conducted for the purpose of making its members more useful to themselves, to the labor movement and to society in general.

5. The workers' college is self-determining so far as its practices are concerned. It decides what it shall study, when and where it shall meet, who shall be its instructors, how the classes shall be carried on, etc. As a rule, of course, it meets in the evening and if possible, it assembles in one or more labor halls, although frequently it is necessary to get other places because the halls may not be large enough or numerous enough. The teachers are usually persons who are connected with nearby educational institutions and who specialize in the subject they are called upon to teach. They are generally paid a sum of money for their assistance, $5 a night being a very common wage.

6. The most common subjects studied are: Public speaking, English composition, English literature, history of organized labor, and current labor problems.

A notable feature of some of the workers' colleges and classes is their liaison with important institutions for higher education. This relation has already been pointed out in the case of several schools for woman workers. Another outstanding instance is the inauguration of courses for workers at Springfield and Holyoke, Mass., by a joint executive committee comprised of two members of the faculty of Amherst College and two representatives each from the Holyoke Central Labor Union and the Springfield Labor Union. The Boston Trade Union College is in close touch with neighboring universities and avails itself of academic instruction and advice. The teachers at the Columbus (Ohio) Workers' College are members of the faculty of the State University and the Workers' College at Hamilton, which is controlled altogether by the local cooperative trades and labor council and draws its instructors mainly from Miami University. The Federated Trades Council of Colorado Springs has recently decided to maintain a chair in labor problems at Colorado College.[17]

The annual appropriation of $10,000, which in former years had been used by the University of California's extension department for adult education work, has recently been turned over to a committee of whom the majority are trade-unionists, and the newly organized enterprise has become affiliated with the Workers' Education Bureau.[18]

The multiplication of summer courses and institutes for workers is another indication of the increasing momentum of their educational movement.

The labor chautauquas conducted in 1925 in Mine District No. 2, Pennsylvania, are a new development and had for their object the popularizing of the miners' problems and the convincing of the community that these problems were its problems. The chautauquas are reported as having been very effective in holding the miners together during the recent strike.

Other Workers' Education Institutions

COMMONWEALTH College,[19] at Mena, Ark., which just rounded out its third academic year, is a resident school for the higher education of young men and women from working class families.

[17] The Brookwood Review, Katonah, March, 1926, p. 4.
[18] The Nation, New York, October 1, 1924, p. 333. "Workers' Education in the United States."
[19] Labor Review, Washington, June, 1925, pp. 10, 11: "A new experiment in education for workers," by Harold Coy; press release from Commonwealth Workers' School, received Apr. 26, 1926.

Three 30-week years of instruction are open to students who have a secondary-school education or its equivalent, while promising applicants who are not ready for college may be allowed to enter a two-year preparatory course as probationers. The general aim is to fit these young men and women "for a life of cultural richness, coupled with practical social usefulness," with the special purpose of training them for social service work and activities in the labor movement.

The tuition fee at Commonwealth College is $100 per annum. Students work four hours a day at plowing, building, or whatever needs to be done in exchange for lodging, board, and laundry services. The teachers also take part in the communal or industrial work. The purpose of the scheme is "to cut expenditures to a minimum, to make the group a democratic unit, and to bind the members to concrete realities."

Under this arrangement the college can at present provide for only 50 students. Its 320-acre farm, however, is being developed, a cannery is to be operated this summer, and the setting up of small shops is in contemplation. The extension of such activities the management hopes will ultimately make the college entirely self-supporting.

The Rand School of Social Science, one of the oldest institutions in the United States for educating adult workers, is under the direction of the American Socialist Society. It receives support from the International Ladies Garment Workers, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, and the Workmen's Circle.[20] This institution offers "opportunities for study of the aims and methods of the labor movement in the economic and political fields" and endeavors "to give to participants in the movement such instruction and training as will make them more efficient workers for the cause of labor." Many thousands of young men and women have received instructions at this school and large numbers of them are taking an active part in the industrial and political organizations of the labor world.

The Workmen's Circle is a Jewish socialistic fraternal organization which has schools in about 40 cities in the United States and Canada. In 1924 approximately 5,000 students took about 10 hours' work a week after public school hours in Jewish history and literature and in the American and international labor movement.[21] The March-April, 1926, issue of the "Friend," the official organ of the Workmen's Circle, states (p. 1) that a committee representing eight New York branches of the organization has already been formed and is laying plans for entertainments and lectures "for the whole string of English branches."

[20] Hodgen, Margaret T.: Workers' Education in England and the United States, New York and London, 1925, p. 216.
[21] American Labor Year Book, 1925, New York, 1925, p. 219.

STABILIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT

Stabilization of Employment in the United States [1]

THE coordinated efforts of public authorities to get at the economic roots of the unemployment problem and to reach a practical solution for the adjustment of the labor market are still in an experimental stage in this country, according to a report on stabilization of employment in the United States, by J. R. Bellerby, of the international labor office. He also characterizes as yet empirical the numerous attempts made by independent industrial units to lessen unemployment or to alleviate its effects.

In many quarters the investigator found a lack of practical interest in the unemployment question. He attributes this in some degree to a failure to realize the existence of an unemployment problem, such failure being due in part to the fact that there are no comprehensive unemployment statistics in the United States.

The main purpose of the author is to report on measures for the stabilization of industry that may be applied by central agencies, namely, public authorities and Federal reserve banks, although he gives considerable space to certain schemes and systems outside the scope of centralized preventive action which, if they were made general, would do much to reduce unemployment.

From an observation of current trends he makes the following prediction on the matter of unemployment insurance:

> The responsibility of the individual worker for his own welfare will be assumed collectively through the medium of the trade-union. The responsibility of the community will be borne largely by the employer. Working together, these two groups will set up insurance schemes of a very diverse nature. Their joint attempts may at some future date be supported by the State or Federal Governments by means of additional inducements to set up schemes. There seems no immediate likelihood of public authorities providing the organization or administrative machinery for unemployment insurance on a general scale.

Mr. Bellerby reports a recent gradual but continuous development in the employment services of the States, which has been accompanied by an increasing public interest in these activities. The cooperation between the States and the United States Employment Service is also the subject of favorable comment.

The Federal reserve system's credit control is discussed in some detail. The writer holds that the object of such control "is to insure the commensurate growth of production and consumption"—a detailed and scientific application of "the ideal of industrial stabilization." If consumption could be kept approximately even with production capacity so that stocks would not accumulate and "clog the wheels of industry" the trade cycle would be ruled out—booms and depressions would be eliminated. He also stresses the importance of the cooperation of private industry with the Federal reserve system in the interest of stabilization.

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[1] International Labor Office. Studies and reports, Series C (employment and unemployment), No. 11. Stabilization of employment in the United States, by J. R. Bellerby. Geneva, 1926.

In discussing the advance planning and financing of public works, some American suggestions and schemes are given, notably a provision for public works recommended by President Harding's Unemployment Conference Committee, which dealt with seasonal activities in the construction industries, and a statement by President Coolidge in 1925 before the Associated General Contractors of America.

The passage of the Federal highway act during the great depression of 1921, appropriating $75,000,000 for road construction, is cited as typical of American methods in times of industrial crisis.

It is pointed out, however, that only two States, California and Wisconsin, have made legal provision for the advance planning of public works.

Statistical Progress

SUFFICIENT advance has been made in the United States in the development of forecasting indexes to enable a body centralizing credit control "to direct its policy consciously and with full appreciation of the situation."

The hope is expressed that the Federal reserve policy will be perfected and the suggestion made that "the evolution of forecasting indexes offers a most fruitful line of progress, for it would allow of prompter and more effective application of the remedies available." Further delays might be avoided "by simplifying the organization and control of the system."

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

Employment in Selected Industries in May, 1926

EMPLOYMENT in manufacturing industries decreased 1.2 per cent in May as compared with April, and pay-roll totals decreased 1.6 per cent. As compared with May, 1925, however, there was an increase of 0.9 per cent in employment and an increase of 1.3 per cent in pay-roll totals.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of employment for May is 91.7, as compared with 92.8 for April and with 90.9 for May, 1925. The index of pay-roll totals for May is 95.6, as compared with 97.2 for April and 94.4 for May, 1925.

The decline in May was most marked in the textile, vehicle, metal, and chemical groups of industries, while such seasonal industries as brick, cement, and ice cream showed their usual spring increases.

This report is based on returns from 9,836 establishments, in 54 industries, having in May, 2,974,031 employees whose combined earnings in one week were $79,502,277.

Comparison of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in April and May, 1926

THE volume of employment increased in May, as compared with April, in the Pacific and Mountain geographic divisions alone, the increase in each instance being 3.3 per cent. The decreases in the remaining seven geographic divisions were greatest in the New England and East (North and South) Central divisions—2 per cent or over in each case. The South Atlantic States dropped 1.8 per cent of their employees and the Middle Atlantic 1.1 per cent.

Four groups of industries—food, lumber, paper, and stone, clay, and glass—were the only ones, of the 12 groups, showing improved employment conditions, the largest gains being in the last-named group, which includes cement and brick. The declines in employment in the textile and vehicle groups were marked in every industry included.

Gains in employment appeared in May in only 10 of the 54[1] separate industries, improved conditions being found, almost entirely, in decidedly seasonal industries alone, while sharp drops were shown in many of the largest industries, for example: Automobiles, 3.8 per cent in employment and 4.9 per cent in pay-roll totals; cotton goods, 2.6 per cent in employment and 7.3 per cent in pay-roll totals; iron and steel, 1.3 per cent in employment and 3 per cent in pay-roll totals; boots and shoes, 1.5 per cent in employment and 4 per cent in pay-roll totals; furniture, 4 per cent in employment and 5.1 per cent in pay-roll totals; and silk goods, 3 per cent and 1 per cent in the two items, respectively.

For convenient reference the latest figures available relating to all employees, excluding executives and officials, on Class I railroads, drawn from Interstate Commerce Commission reports, are given at the foot of Table 1 and Table 2.

[1] Cast-iron pipe appears in this comparison for the first time.

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK EACH IN APRIL AND MAY, 1926

[The per cents of change for each of the 12 groups of industries, and for the total, are weighted]

Industry	Establishments	Number on pay roll		Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll		Per cent of change
		April, 1926	May, 1926		April, 1926	May, 1926	
Food and kindred products	**1,354**	**189,227**	**191,781**	**+1.4**	**$4,753,656**	**$4,925,970**	**+3.6**
Slaughtering and meat packing	82	69,956	71,406	+2.1	1,755,230	1,831,161	+4.3
Confectionery	268	30,462	30,252	−0.7	558,435	562,850	+0.8
Ice cream	186	8,162	9,339	+14.4	274,246	313,246	+14.2
Flour	348	14,345	14,171	−1.2	371,967	371,792	−(1)
Baking	454	54,752	55,391	+1.2	1,446,713	1,504,284	+4.0
Sugar refining, cane	16	11,550	11,222	−2.8	347,065	342,637	−1.3
Textiles and their products	**1,886**	**594,193**	**580,010**	**−2.5**	**11,507,323**	**11,000,369**	**−4.7**
Cotton goods	496	231,835	225,886	−2.6	3,755,333	3,481,775	−7.3
Hosiery and knit goods	253	83,083	81,686	−1.7	1,548,573	1,550,094	+0.1
Silk goods	197	56,733	55,041	−3.0	1,186,160	1,174,472	−1.0
Woolen and worsted goods	195	59,292	58,808	−0.8	1,281,977	1,284,549	+0.2
Carpets and rugs	29	23,025	22,246	−3.4	594,296	556,812	−6.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles	89	29,634	28,910	−2.4	717,126	683,836	−4.6
Clothing, men's	273	58,039	56,543	−2.6	1,318,036	1,254,410	−4.8
Shirts and collars	88	21,302	20,941	−1.7	364,023	343,701	−5.6
Clothing, women's	187	18,730	17,977	−4.0	452,928	414,775	−8.4
Millinery and lace goods	79	12,520	11,972	−4.4	288,871	255,945	−11.4
Iron and steel and their products	**1,674**	**669,947**	**662,792**	**(2)−0.9**	**20,089,989**	**19,736,678**	**(2)−1.6**
Iron and steel	211	292,646	288,746	−1.3	9,027,693	8,760,756	−3.0
Cast-iron pipe	52	15,395	15,401	+(1)	378,942	379,774	+0.2
Structural ironwork	153	23,141	23,557	+1.8	668,184	684,550	+2.4
Foundry and machine-shop products	820	212,808	211,561	−0.6	6,445,199	6,416,912	−0.4
Hardware	65	35,212	34,365	−2.6	879,857	871,383	−1.0
Machine tools	165	32,466	32,039	−1.3	999,608	975,875	−2.4
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	113	41,316	40,582	−1.8	1,206,384	1,185,968	−1.7
Stoves	95	16,963	16,601	−2.1	484,722	461,460	−4.8
Lumber and its products	**1,033**	**205,830**	**205,360**	**+0.2**	**4,583,965**	**4,595,676**	**+1.2**
Lumber, sawmills	410	113,238	115,543	+2.0	2,355,494	2,435,800	+3.4
Lumber, millwork	238	32,477	32,126	−1.1	790,210	795,342	+0.6
Furniture	385	60,115	57,691	−4.0	1,438,261	1,364,534	−5.1
Leather and its products	**361**	**117,742**	**115,840**	**−1.6**	**2,624,055**	**2,531,169**	**−3.4**
Leather	140	29,239	28,657	−2.0	742,461	725,516	−2.3
Boots and shoes	221	88,503	87,183	−1.5	1,881,594	1,805,653	−4.0
Paper and printing	**899**	**167,569**	**167,655**	**+0.1**	**5,413,791**	**5,415,214**	(3)
Paper and pulp	205	56,085	56,244	+0.3	1,499,593	1,493,805	−0.4
Paper boxes	180	19,241	19,089	−0.8	427,774	426,034	−0.4
Printing, book and job	303	44,282	44,096	−0.4	1,549,096	1,542,026	−0.5
Printing, newspapers	211	47,961	48,226	+0.6	1,937,328	1,953,349	+0.8
Chemicals and allied products	**254**	**84,997**	**80,922**	**−7.8**	**2,449,191**	**2,402,808**	**−4.6**
Chemicals	94	22,887	22,500	−1.7	595,576	588,603	−1.2
Fertilizers	105	10,832	7,186	−33.7	199,723	140,625	−29.6
Petroleum refining	55	51,278	51,236	−0.1	1,653,892	1,673,580	+1.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	**651**	**109,283**	**112,716**	**+3.1**	**2,863,871**	**3,012,510**	**+4.9**
Cement	94	25,105	26,401	+5.2	728,162	783,960	+7.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	375	31,525	34,046	+8.0	780,411	883,747	+13.2
Pottery	60	13,013	12,858	−1.2	345,588	338,348	−2.1
Glass	122	39,640	39,411	−0.6	1,009,710	1,006,455	−0.3
Metal products, other than iron and steel	**186**	**49,736**	**48,495**	**−2.5**	**1,375,338**	**1,322,398**	**−3.6**
Stamped and enameled ware	45	15,740	14,946	−5.0	399,865	359,781	−10.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	141	33,996	33,549	−1.3	975,473	962,617	−1.3
Tobacco products	**181**	**39,323**	**38,987**	**−0.5**	**681,065**	**675,041**	**−0.7**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	33	9,007	8,728	−3.1	140,469	137,088	−2.4
Cigars and cigarettes	148	30,316	30,259	−0.2	540,596	537,953	−0.5

[1] Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
[2] Cast-iron pipe is not included in this per cent; data for the industry index are not yet all available.
[3] No change.

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK EACH IN APRIL AND MAY, 1926—Continued

Industry	Establishments	Number on pay roll		Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll		Per cent of change
		April, 1926	May, 1926		Apr 1, 1926	May, 1926	
Vehicles for land transportation	**945**	**526,019**	**512,041**	**−1.9**	**$17,048,949**	**$16,431,437**	**−2.6**
Automobiles	200	351,635	338,324	−3.8	11,927,597	11,339,081	−4.9
Carriages and wagons	68	2,016	1,937	−3.9	46,421	5,495	−2.0
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	212	18,394	18,344	−0.3	553,086	548,988	−0.7
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	465	153,974	153,436	−0.3	4,521,845	4,497,873	−0.5
Miscellaneous industries	**412**	**261,643**	**257,432**	**−1.1**	**7,641,325**	**7,453,007**	**−2.6**
Agricultural implements	88	28,678	27,569	−3.9	833,012	798,835	−4.1
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	171	120,842	120,417	−0.4	3,517,062	3,478,714	−1.1
Pianos and organs	40	8,368	8,233	−1.6	249,960	243,410	−2.6
Rubber boots and shoes	11	18,884	18,410	−2.5	460,615	447,001	−3.0
Automobile tires	62	57,551	55,577	−3.4	1,767,452	1,692,326	−4.3
Shipbuilding, steel	40	27,320	27,226	−0.3	813,224	792,721	−2.5
All industries	**9,836**	**3,015,509**	**2,974,031**	**−1.2**	**81,032,518**	**79,502,277**	**−1.6**

Recapitulation by Geographic Divisions

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION							
New England	1,352	432,493	423,312	−2.1	10,523,644	10,189,451	−3.2
Middle Atlantic	2,379	849,979	840,522	−1.1	24,033,014	23,679,861	−1.5
East North Central	2,523	985,592	966,067	−2.0	29,860,587	29,121,894	−2.5
West North Central	890	152,672	152,562	−0.1	3,882,583	3,896,004	+0.3
South Atlantic	1,100	276,435	271,501	−1.8	5,231,616	5,042,377	−3.6
East South Central	443	107,324	104,773	−2.4	2,129,024	2,047,198	−3.8
West South Central	365	71,412	71,124	−0.4	1,532,874	1,540,501	+0.5
Mountain	161	24,809	25,632	+3.3	682,728	710,475	+4.1
Pacific	623	114,793	118,538	+3.3	3,156,448	3,274,516	+3.7
All divisions	**9,836**	**3,015,509**	**2,974,031**	**−1.2**	**81,032,518**	**79,502,277**	**−1.6**

Employment on Class I Railroads

March 15, 1926		1,728,639		[1] $242,179,456	
April 15, 1926		1,766,615	+2.2	[1] 235,478,375	−2.8

[1] Amount of pay roll for one month.

Comparison of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in May, 1925, and May, 1926

EMPLOYMENT in manufacturing industries in May, 1926, was 0.9 per cent greater than in the same month of 1925 and employees' earnings were 1.3 per cent greater.

The volume of employment in this 12-month period increased in 6 of the 9 geographic divisions, the increases in 3 of the 6 divisions—South Atlantic, Pacific, and West South Central—ranging from 3.5 per cent to 3.9 per cent in employment and from 3.4 per cent to 4.7 in pay-roll totals. The New England division dropped 1.5 per cent of its employees and pay-roll totals were decreased correspondingly.

Eight of the 12 groups of industries show marked improvement over 1925, the iron and steel group, which covers the largest number of employees, having gained 5.8 per cent in employment and 6.9 per cent in pay-roll totals.

The groups not in as good condition now as a year ago are: Textiles, leather, lumber, and tobacco, the textile group having lost 3.6 per cent of its employees and pay-roll totals having been decreased 5.4 per cent.

Machine tools have over 20 per cent more employees and foundries and machine shops nearly 8 per cent more than in May, 1925, while woolen and worsted goods have lost one-eighth of their employees and cigars over one-tenth of theirs.

TABLE 2.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS—MAY, 1926, COMPARED WITH MAY, 1925

[The per cents of change for each of the 12 groups of industries, and for the total, are weighted]

Industry	Per cent of change May, 1926, compared with May, 1925	
	Number on pay roll	Amount of pay roll
Food and kindred products	+0.2	+1.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	−3.0	−0.9
Confectionery	+3.6	+4.3
Ice cream	+4.5	+9.1
Flour	−1.9	−0.9
Baking	+2.6	+3.8
Sugar refining, cane	−7.2	−5.0
Textiles and their products	−3.6	−5.4
Cotton goods	−3.0	−7.1
Hosiery and knit goods	(1)	+4.5
Silk goods	−4.0	−5.4
Woolen and worsted goods	−12.5	−14.4
Carpets and rugs	−4.0	−10.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles	−3.3	−4.3
Clothing, men's	−0.5	−5.3
Shirts and collars	−4.5	−6.3
Clothing, women's	+0.1	+0.9
Millinery and lace goods	−11.0	−13.9
Iron and steel and their products	+5.8	+8.9
Iron and steel	+2.8	+2.2
Structural ironwork	+8.0	+7.9
Foundry and machine-shop products	+7.7	+11.0
Hardware	−3.1	+1.3
Machine tools	+22.0	+24.9
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	+3.9	+5.9
Stoves	+3.7	+2.7
Lumber and its products	−1.5	−0.1
Lumber, sawmills	−2.2	−1.2
Lumber, millwork	−1.3	−0.7
Furniture	+0.9	+4.1
Leather and its products	−4.4	−8.7
Leather	+1.6	+2.1
Boots and shoes	−6.2	−13.3
Paper and printing	+3.9	+7.0
Paper and pulp	+1.4	+3.8
Paper boxes	+1.1	+5.1
Printing, book and job	+2.5	+8.7
Printing, newspapers	+5.4	+8.7
Chemicals and allied products	+7.1	+6.5
Chemicals	+3.7	+5.4
Fertilizers	+15.6	+17.1
Petroleum refining	+8.5	+4.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	+1.9	+3.0
Cement	−6.1	−4.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	−0.3	−0.6
Pottery	−1.1	+3.0
Glass	+8.5	+9.4
Metal products, other than iron and steel	+2.7	+2.0
Stamped and enameled ware	+4.9	+0.4
Brass, bronze, and copper products	+1.7	+2.5
Tobacco products	−8.6	−10.2
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	+3.8	+1.4
Cigars and cigarettes	−10.2	−11.7
Vehicles for land transportation	+1.3	(2)
Automobiles	−1.1	−4.0
Carriages and wagons	−0.6	+1.5
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	+1.0	−0.3
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	+3.4	+3.8
Miscellaneous industries	+2.7	+1.1
Agricultural implements	+9.9	+14.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	+9.5	+7.1
Pianos and organs	+1.5	+2.5
Rubber boots and shoes	+8.2	+8.3
Automobile tires	−7.0	−8.7
Shipbuilding, steel	+1.2	(1)
All industries	+0.9	+1.3

Recapitulation

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION		
New England	−1.5	−1.5
Middle Atlantic	+0.4	+1.5
East North Central	+1.2	+0.2
West North Central	+0.5	+0.5
South Atlantic	+3.8	+4.7
East South Central	−0.1	+0.2
West South Central	+3.5	+3.4
Mountain	−3.6	−1.3
Pacific	+3.9	+4.1
All divisions	+0.9	+1.3

Employment on Class I Railroads

Month and year	Number on pay roll	Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll	Per cent of change
April 15, 1925	1,729,134		[3] $227,537,021	
April 15, 1926	1,766,615	+2.2	[3] 235,478,375	+3.5

[1] No change.

[2] Amount of pay roll for one month.

Per Capita Earnings

PER CAPITA earnings in May were 0.4 per cent lower than in April and 0.4 per cent higher than in May, 1925.

Twenty-five of the 54 separate industries show increased per capita earnings in May as compared with April and one industry showed no change, leaving 28 industries with decreased earnings per employee. These monthly variations in per capita earnings are largely seasonal—for example, the list of gains is headed by the fertilizer industry, which, having nearly completed its shipping season, had dropped a large number of low-paid laborers, while its skilled men were retained. The next largest gain was in the brick industry where owing to the spring season rush the operating time had been considerably increased.

One large decrease, however, was of special significance—that of 4.9 per cent in the cotton-goods industry.

The changes in the yearly comparison, on the other hand, are indicative of the general trend of business in manufacturing industries.

In May, 31 industries showed gains in the 12-month period, the increases in the four industries of the paper group being especially noticeable. The outstanding decrease—7.2 per cent—was in the boot and shoe industry, followed by 5.9 per cent in the carpet industry and 4.6 per cent in the cotton-goods industry.

TABLE 3.—COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA EARNINGS, MAY, 1926, WITH APRIL, 1926, AND MAY, 1925

Industry	Per cent of change May, 1926, compared with—		Industry	Per cent of change May, 1926, compared with—	
	April, 1926	May, 1925		April, 1926	May, 1925
Fertilizers	+6.1	+1.4	Agricultural implements	−0.2	+4.1
Brick, tile and terra cotta	+4.8	−0.1	Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	−0.2	+0.2
Baking	+2.8	+1.3	Ice cream	−0.2	+4.5
Cement	+2.4	+1.9	Cigars and cigarettes	−0.3	−1.7
Slaughtering and meat packing	+2.2	+2.5	Leather	−0.3	+0.5
Silk goods	+2.1	−1.5	Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	−0.5	−1.0
Carriages and wagons	+2.0	+2.5	Rubber boots and shoes	−0.5	+0.1
Hosiery and knit goods	+1.8	+4.3	Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	−0.7	−2.0
Lumber, millwork	+1.8	+0.3	Paper and pulp	−0.7	+2.0
Hardware	+1.6	+4.2	Automobile tires	−0.8	−1.7
Sugar refining, cane	+1.6	+2.5	Pottery	−0.9	+4.2
Confectionery	+1.5	+0.7	Pianos and organs	−1.0	+1.1
Lumber, sawmills	+1.3	+0.9	Machine tools	−1.1	+2.6
Petroleum refining	+1.3	−3.2	Automobiles	−1.2	−3.1
Flour	+1.2	+0.5	Furniture	−1.2	+2.7
Woolen and worsted goods	+1.0	−2.0	Iron and steel	−1.7	−0.4
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	+0.7	−2.4	Shipbuilding, steel	−2.2	−1.0
Structural ironwork	+0.7	−0.3	Dyeing and finishing textiles	−2.3	−1.2
Chemicals	+0.5	+1.5	Clothing, men's	−2.3	−4.5
Paper boxes	+0.4	+4.1	Boots and shoes	−2.6	−7.2
Glass	+0.3	+0.9	Stoves	−2.7	−0.9
Printing, newspapers	+0.3	+3.4	Carpets and rugs	−3.0	−5.9
Cast-iron pipe	+0.2	(1)	Shirts and collars	−4.0	−2.1
Foundry and machine-shop products	+0.1	+3.3	Clothing, women's	−4.6	+0.9
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	+0.1	+2.5	Cotton goods	−4.9	−4.6
Brass, bronze, and copper products	(2)	+0.7	Stamped and enameled ware	−5.2	−4.3
Printing, book and job	−(3)	+6.4	Millinery and lace goods	−7.3	−3.1

[1] Data not yet available. [2] No change. [3] Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

Wage Changes

ONE hundred and one establishments in 24 industries reported wage-rate increases for the month ending May 15. These increases, averaging 7.6 per cent, affected 28 per cent of the total employees in the establishments concerned. Twenty-six of the 101 establishments were in the foundry and machine-shop products industry.

Wage-rate decreases were reported by 4 establishments in 4 industries. These decreases, averaging 6.9 per cent, affected 82 per cent of the total employees in the establishments concerned.

TABLE 4.—WAGE ADJUSTMENT OCCURRING BETWEEN APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1926

Industry	Establishments		Per cent of increase or decrease in wage rates		Employees affected		
	Total number reporting	Number reporting increase or decrease in wage rates	Range	Average	Total number	Per cent of employees	
						In establishments reporting increase or decrease in wage rates	In all establishments reporting
			Increases				
Slaughtering and meat packing	82	1	6	6.0	43	3	(1)
Ice cream	186	4	3 -30	9.0	35	35	(1)
Baking	454	8	3.4- 9.1	5.1	193	29	(1)
Iron and steel	211	4	1.5- 8	6.5	1,775	69	1
Cast-iron pipe	52	1	5	5.0	114	100	1
Structural ironwork	153	6	5 -10	6.5	190	12	1
Foundry and machine-shop products	820	26	1 -15	6.8	64	13	(1)
Machine tools	165	3	5 -11	7.5	41	4	(1)
Stoves	95	1	5.7	5.7	50	24	(1)
Lumber, millwork	238	4	1.6-10	3.5	147	32	(1)
Furniture	385	2	8 -10.5	.0	29	8	(1)
Leather	140	1	8	8.0	10	15	(1)
Boots and shoes	221	1	17	17.0	16	5	(1)
Paper and pulp	205	3	3 - 4	3.7	241	16	(1)
Printing, book and job	303	3	0.8-15.2	10.3	30	7	(1)
Printing, newspapers	211	5	2 - 8	4.8	434	32	1
Chemicals	94	3	5 -10	9.0	1,239	43	6
Fertilizers	105	2	10 -14	12.9	56	59	1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	375	8	5 -15	9.4	622	83	2
Brass, bronze, and copper products	141	2	10 -33.3	13.9	12	44	(1)
Automobiles	200	3	5 -10	7.0	249	12	(1)
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	171	6	5 -11	6.7	86	6	(1)
Pianos and organs	40	1	10	15.0	15	9	(1)
Shipbuilding, steel	40	3	7.1-10	9.9	1,323	82	5
			Decreases				
Baking	454	1	8	8.0	5	71	(1)
Woolen and worsted goods	195	1	10	10.0	95	100	(1)
Furniture	385	1	10	10.0	50	40	(1)
Leather	140	1	5	5.0	232	97	1

[1] Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

Indexes of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in Manufacturing Industries

INDEX numbers for May, 1926, and for April, 1926, and May, 1925, showing relatively the variation in number of persons employed and in pay-roll totals, in each of the 53 [2] industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, together with general indexes for the combined 12 groups of industries, appear in the following table.

The general index of employment for May, 1926, is 91.7, this number being 1.2 per cent lower than the index for April and 0.9 per cent higher than the index for May, 1925. The general index of pay-roll totals for May, 1926, is 95.6, this number being 1.6 per cent lower than the index for April and 1.3 per cent higher than the index for May, 1925.

In computing the general index and the group indexes the index numbers of separate industries are weighted according to the importance of the industries.

TABLE 5.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, MAY, 1925, AND APRIL AND MAY, 1926

[Monthly average, 1923=100]

Industry	1925		1926			
	May		April		May	
	Employment	Pay-roll totals	Employment	Pay-roll totals	Employment	Pay-roll totals
General index	**90.9**	**94.4**	**92.8**	**97.2**	**91.7**	**95.6**
Food and kindred products	**86.6**	**90.4**	**85.6**	**88.6**	**86.8**	**91.8**
Slaughtering and meat packing	80.2	82.1	76.2	78.1	77.8	81.4
Confectionery	75.1	82.1	78.3	85.0	77.8	85.6
Ice cream	99.6	103.2	91.0	98.6	104.1	112.6
Flour	82.8	84.3	82.2	83.5	81.2	83.5
Baking	97.4	102.2	98.8	102.1	99.9	106.1
Sugar refining, cane	104.0	105.7	99.2	101.7	96.5	100.4
Textiles and their products	**88.9**	**87.8**	**87.9**	**87.2**	**85.7**	**83.1**
Cotton goods	86.4	85.9	86.0	86.1	83.8	79.8
Hosiery and knit goods	98.4	106.4	100.2	111.1	98.4	111.2
Silk goods	101.7	110.1	100.6	105.2	97.6	104.1
Woolen and worsted goods	87.8	86.6	77.4	74.0	76.8	74.1
Carpets	97.7	95.3	97.0	91.6	93.8	85.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles	100.6	102.3	99.7	102.6	97.3	97.9
Clothing, men's	80.6	73.0	82.3	72.5	80.2	69.1
Shirts and collars	88.4	92.4	85.9	91.7	84.4	86.6
Clothing, women's	81.0	76.6	84.5	84.4	81.1	77.3
Millinary and lace goods	86.5	90.1	80.6	87.6	77.0	77.6
Iron and steel and their products	**87.3**	**91.7**	**93.2**	**99.6**	**92.4**	**98.0**
Iron and steel	96.2	100.9	100.2	106.3	98.9	103.1
Structural ironwork	90.7	98.7	96.3	104.0	98.0	106.5
Foundry and machine-shop products	81.0	83.0	87.7	92.4	87.2	92.1
Hardware	91.8	98.0	91.4	100.3	89 0	99.3
Machine tools	83.7	90.0	103.4	115.2	102.1	112.4
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	93.9	97.0	99.3	104.5	97.6	102.7
Stoves	82.9	85.6	87.8	92.3	86.0	87.9
Lumber and its products	**93.3**	**98.4**	**91.7**	**97.1**	**91.9**	**98.3**
Lumber, sawmills	91.5	97.6	87.8	93.2	89.5	96.4
Lumber, millwork	100.2	106.6	100.0	105.2	98.9	105.9
Furniture	95.0	96.0	99.9	105.3	95.9	99.9
Leather and its products	**89.6**	**87.0**	**87.1**	**82.2**	**85.7**	**79.4**
Leather	87.9	89.7	91.1	93.8	89.3	91.6
Boots and shoes	90.1	85.9	85.8	77.6	84.5	74.5
Paper and printing	**99.7**	**103.7**	**102.5**	**111.0**	**102.6**	**111.0**
Paper and pulp	95.1	98.9	96.1	103.1	96.4	102.7
Paper boxes	96.5	101.1	98.4	106.8	97.6	106.3
Printing, book and job	99.5	103.2	102.4	112.8	102.0	112.2
Printing, newspaper	105.7	109.5	110.7	118.1	111.4	119.0

[2] The total number is 54, but the indexes for cast-iron pipe have not yet been computed.

TABLE 5.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, MAY, 1925, AND APRIL AND MAY, 1926—Continued

[Monthly average, 1923=100]

Industry	1925		1926			
	May		April		May	
	Employment	Pay-roll totals	Employment	Pay-roll totals	Employment	Pay-roll totals
Chemicals and allied products	**89.0**	**93.9**	**103.4**	**104.8**	**95.3**	**100.0**
Chemicals	90.7	97.4	95.7	103.9	94.1	102.7
Fertilizers	78.9	82.9	137.5	137.9	91.2	97.1
Petroleum refining	91.1	93.2	98.9	96.6	98.8	97.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	**100.4**	**106.9**	**99.2**	**105.0**	**102.3**	**110.1**
Cement	98.8	102.7	88.2	91.1	92.8	98.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	106.6	113.0	98.4	99.2	106.3	112.3
Pottery	109.5	116.0	109.6	122.1	108.3	119.5
Glass	91.6	99.9	100.0	109.6	99.4	109.3
Metal products, other than iron and steel	**95.9**	**97.9**	**101.0**	**103.6**	**98.5**	**99.9**
Brass, bronze, and copper products	97.8	100.8	100.8	104.7	99.5	103.3
Stamped and enameled ware	91.8	90.1	101.4	100.6	96.3	90.5
Tobacco products	**91.9**	**92.8**	**84.4**	**83.9**	**84.0**	**83.3**
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	90.3	97.3	96.7	101.2	93.7	98.7
Cigars and cigarettes	92.1	92.3	82.8	81.9	82.7	81.5
Vehicles for land transportation	**92.3**	**96.8**	**95.3**	**99.4**	**93.5**	**96.8**
Automobiles	111.4	120.3	114.5	121.5	110.2	115.5
Carriages and wagons	91.0	92.1	94.2	95.4	90.5	93.5
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	89.1	92.5	90.3	92.9	90.0	92.2
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	80.4	82.1	83.4	85.7	83.1	85.2
Miscellaneous industries	**93.0**	**99.1**	**96.6**	**102.9**	**95.5**	**100.2**
Agricultural implements	91.9	101.1	105.1	120.8	101.0	115.8
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	88.3	94.1	97.0	101.9	96.7	100.8
Pianos and organs	92.2	100.0	95.1	105.3	93.6	102.5
Rubber boots and shoes	82.2	90.1	91.1	100.7	88.9	97.6
Automobile tires	115.9	121.7	111.6	116.1	107.8	111.1
Shipbuilding, steel	89.2	94.9	90.5	97.3	90.3	94.9

The following table shows the general index of employment in manufacturing industries from June, 1914, to May, 1926, and the general index of pay-roll totals from November, 1915, to May, 1926:

TABLE 6.—GENERAL INDEX OF EMPLOYMENT AND OF PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Employment (June, 1914, to May, 1926)

[Monthly average, 1923=100]

Month	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
January	------	91.9	104.6	117.0	115.5	110.1	116.1	76.8	87.0	98.0	95.4	90.0	93.3
February	------	92.9	107.4	117.5	114.7	103.2	115.6	82.3	87.7	99.6	96.6	91.6	94.3
March	------	93.9	109.6	117.4	116.5	104.0	116.9	83.9	83.2	101.8	96.4	92.3	93.7
April	------	93.9	109.0	115.0	115.0	103.6	117.1	83.0	82.4	101.8	94.5	92.1	92.8
May	------	94.9	109.5	115.1	114.0	106.3	117.4	84.5	84.3	101.8	90.8	90.9	91.7
June	98.9	95.9	110.0	114.8	113.4	108.7	117.9	84.9	87.1	101.9	87.9	90.1	------
July	95.9	94.9	110.3	114.2	114.6	110.7	110.0	84.5	86.8	100.4	84.8	89.3	------
August	92.9	95.9	110.0	112.7	114.5	109.9	109.7	85.6	88.0	99.7	85.0	89.9	------
September	94.9	98.9	111.4	110.7	114.2	112.1	107.0	87.0	90.6	99.8	86.7	90.9	------
October	94.9	100.8	112.9	113.2	111.5	106.8	102.5	88.4	92.6	99.3	87.9	92.3	------
November	93.9	103.8	114.5	115.6	113.4	110.0	97.3	89.4	94.5	98.7	87.8	92.5	------
December	92.9	105.9	115.1	117.2	113.5	113.2	91.1	89.9	96.6	96.9	89.4	92.6	------
Average	[1] **94.9**	**97.0**	**110.4**	**115.0**	**114.2**	**108.2**	**109.9**	**85.1**	**88.4**	**100.0**	**90.3**	**91.2**	[2] **93.2**

TABLE 6.—GENERAL INDEX OF EMPLOYMENT AND OF PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES—Continued

Pay-roll totals (November, 1915, to May, 1926)

Month	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
January	-------	52.1	69.8	79.6	104.2	126.6	80.6	71.5	91.8	94.5	90.0	94.9
February	-------	57.8	70.5	79.8	95.0	124.8	82.4	76.7	95.2	99.4	95.1	98.9
March	-------	60.0	73.6	88.2	95.4	133.0	83.3	74.2	100.3	99.0	96.6	99.1
April	-------	59.7	69.4	88.8	94.5	130.6	82.8	72.6	101.3	96.9	94.2	97.2
May	-------	62.1	75.8	94.5	96.7	135.7	81.8	76.9	104.8	92.4	94.4	95.6
June	-------	62.5	76.1	94.3	100.2	138.0	81.0	82.0	104.7	87.0	91.7	-------
July	-------	58.7	73.1	97.5	102.5	124.9	76.0	74.1	99.9	80.8	89.6	-------
August	-------	60.9	75.0	105.3	105.3	132.2	79.0	79.3	99.3	83.5	91.4	-------
September	-------	92.9	74.4	106.6	111.6	128.2	77.8	82.7	100.0	86.0	90.4	-------
October	-------	65.5	82.2	110.3	105.5	123.0	76.8	86.0	102.3	88.5	96.2	-------
November	53.8	69.2	87.4	104.1	111.3	111.3	77.2	89.8	101.0	87.6	96.2	-------
December	56.0	71.0	87.8	111.2	121.5	102.4	81.5	92.9	98.9	91.7	97.3	-------
Average	[1] 54.9	61.9	76.3	96.7	103.6	125.9	80.0	79.9	100.0	90.6	93.6	[2] 97.1

[1] Average for 7 months. [2] Average for 5 months. [3] Average for 2 months.

Proportion of Time Worked and Force Employed in Manufacturing Industries in May, 1926

REPORTS from 7,525 establishments indicate that in May the plants in operation were employing an average of 86 per cent of a normal full force of employees who were working an average of 93 per cent of full time. These averages indicate a decrease of 1 per cent in number of employees as compared with April.

One per cent of the reporting establishments were idle, 67 per cent were operating on a full-time schedule, and 32 per cent on a part-time schedule; 45 per cent had a normal full force of employees and 54 per cent were operating with reduced force.

TABLE 7.—ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING FULL AND PART TIME AND EMPLOYING FULL AND PART WORKING FORCE IN MAY, 1926

Industry	Establishments reporting		Per cent of establishments operating—		Average per cent of full time operated in establishments operating	Per cent of establishments operating with—		Average per cent of normal full force employed by establishments operating
	Total number	Per cent idle	Full time	Part time		Full normal force	Part normal force	
Food and kindred products	1,055	(1)	58	41	88	47	52	86
Slaughtering and meat packing	49	------	53	47	90	29	71	84
Confectionery	207	------	51	49	90	9	91	69
Ice cream	94	1	93	6	99	9	90	82
Flour	305	1	32	67	75	44	55	84
Baking	389	------	75	25	94	83	17	97
Sugar refining, cane	11	------	55	45	92	45	55	91
Textiles and their products	1,333	2	56	42	91	45	54	86
Cotton goods	422	2	53	45	93	57	41	91
Hosiery and knit goods	162	------	50	50	87	40	60	82
Silk goods	156	1	64	35	95	44	55	90
Woolen and worsted goods	173	4	60	36	90	35	61	84
Carpets and rugs	15	------	47	53	83	33	67	85
Dyeing and finishing textiles	73	------	36	64	85	27	73	81
Clothing, men's	150	------	66	34	92	43	57	85
Shirts and collars	54	------	72	28	96	61	39	92
Clothing, women's	83	4	71	25	95	43	53	85
Millinery and lace goods	45	------	33	67	77	13	87	66

[1] Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

TABLE 7.—ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING FULL AND PART TIME AND EMPLOYING FULL AND PART WORKING FORCE IN MAY, 1926—Continued

Industry	Establishments reporting		Per cent of establishments operating—		Average per cent of full time operated in establishments operating	Per cent of establishments operating with—		Average per cent of normal full force employed by establishments operating
	Total number	Per cent idle	Full time	Part time		Full normal force	Part normal force	
Iron and steel and their products	**1,314**	**1**	**67**	**33**	**94**	**31**	**69**	81
Iron and steel	151	1	62	37	94	27	72	89
Cast-iron pipe	39	13	51	36	93	56	31	93
Structural ironwork	119	------	82	18	96	38	62	82
Foundry and machine-shop products	649	------	66	34	94	30	70	79
Hardware	52	2	65	33	96	23	75	84
Machine tools	140	------	84	16	98	17	83	69
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	81	------	67	33	94	54	46	92
Stoves	83	------	36	64	83	28	72	86
Lumber and its products	**807**	**1**	**71**	**28**	**95**	**39**	**60**	88
Lumber, sawmills	309	2	78	20	97	44	54	89
Lumber, millwork	185	------	79	21	97	38	62	90
Furniture	313	1	59	41	93	35	65	85
Leather and its products	**279**	**1**	**63**	**37**	**90**	**33**	**66**	84
Leather	106	------	88	12	97	31	69	84
Boots and shoes	173	1	47	51	86	34	65	84
Paper and printing	**643**	------	**80**	**20**	**96**	**65**	**35**	**94**
Paper and pulp	137	------	80	20	96	57	43	95
Paper boxes	127	------	50	50	89	39	61	88
Printing, book and job	234	------	84	16	97	66	34	94
Printing, newspapers	145	------	100	------	100	96	4	99
Chemicals and allied products	**215**	**1**	**74**	**25**	**95**	**36**	**63**	74
Chemicals	72	------	72	28	96	61	39	92
Fertilizers	102	1	71	28	93	10	89	54
Petroleum refining	41	2	88	10	99	56	41	93
Stone, clay, and glass products	**520**	**4**	**65**	**31**	**93**	**59**	**37**	**91**
Cement	73	------	88	12	96	82	18	97
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	292	7	62	32	92	63	31	93
Pottery	49	------	49	51	91	43	57	89
Glass	106	3	66	31	93	42	56	84
Metal products, other than iron and steel	**151**	**1**	**77**	**22**	**96**	**38**	**61**	84
Stamped and enameled ware	35	------	74	26	96	34	66	88
Brass, bronze, and copper products	116	1	78	21	96	40	59	83
Tobacco products	**110**	**3**	**65**	**32**	**93**	**38**	**59**	88
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	22	------	41	59	88	41	59	89
Cigars and cigarettes	88	3	72	25	94	38	59	88
Vehicles for land transportation	**791**	**1**	**80**	**19**	**97**	**59**	**40**	89
Automobiles	150	2	73	25	96	59	39	91
Carriages and wagons	61	7	57	36	91	41	52	77
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	185	------	96	4	99	77	23	97
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	395	(1)	79	21	97	54	46	86
Miscellaneous industries	**307**	(1)	**74**	**26**	**96**	**43**	**57**	86
Agricultural implements	71	1	75	24	97	55	44	91
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	134	------	82	18	97	44	56	87
Pianos and organs	28	------	75	25	96	57	43	90
Rubber boots and shoes	9	------	44	56	92	22	78	81
Automobile tires	43	------	37	63	89	26	74	86
Shipbuilding, steel	22	------	100	------	100	23	77	63
All industries	**7,525**	**1**	**67**	**32**	**93**	**45**	**54**	86

[1] Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

Employment and Earnings of Railroad Employees, April, 1925, and March and April, 1926

THE following tables show the number of employees and the earnings in various occupations among railroad employees in April, 1925, and in March and April, 1926.

The figures are for Class I roads—that is, all roads having operating revenues of $1,000,000 a year and over.

EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES APRIL, 1925, AND MARCH AND APRIL, 1926

[From monthly reports of Interstate Commerce Commission. As data for only the more important occupations are shown separately, the group totals are not the sum of the items under the respective groups; the grand totals will be found on pp. 105 and 106]

Occupation	Number of employees at middle of month			Total earnings		
	April, 1925	March, 1926	April, 1926	April, 1925	March, 1926	April, 1926
Professional, clerical, and general	**281,266**	**283,132**	**283,631**	**$38,062,895**	**$39,430,537**	**$38,790,883**
Clerks	166,551	166,466	166,606	21,322,264	22,084,403	21,557,495
Stenographers and typists	25,145	25,295	25,359	3,074,321	3,158,678	3,122,423
Maintenance of way and structures	**379,377**	**359,751**	**403,858**	**34,810,231**	**34,563,565**	**37,351,227**
Laborers, extra gang and work train	52,854	48,885	62,383	4,005,634	3,861,159	4,819,207
Laborers, track and roadway section	199,939	183,068	208,451	14,567,280	13,873,695	15,317,478
Maintenance of equipment and stores	**527,423**	**525,554**	**522,613**	**67,247,877**	**71,250,338**	**67,996,896**
Carmen	116,216	113,878	113,178	16,604,395	17,448,225	16,615,582
Machinists	62,178	61,679	61,523	9,553,178	10,287,127	9,731,957
Skilled trades helpers	115,363	115,680	114,876	12,358,278	13,320,437	12,627,811
Laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores)	43,698	44,249	43,342	4,069,615	4,275,093	4,026,247
Common laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores)	59,571	60,509	60,804	4,804,514	5,155,066	4,955,718
Transportation, other than train, engine, and yard	**206,821**	**207,808**	**207,308**	**24,802,449**	**25,919,460**	**25,047,242**
Station agents	31,031	30,702	30,697	4,709,171	4,836,762	4,712,569
Telegraphers, telephoners, and towermen	26,064	25,869	25,799	3,774,207	3,949,327	3,806,026
Truckers (stations, warehouses, and platforms)	39,138	39,507	39,105	3,587,424	3,810,056	3,605,142
Crossing and bridge flagmen and gatemen	22,630	22,237	22,371	1,701,104	1,675,568	1,668,745
Transportation (yard masters, switch tenders, and hostlers)	**23,901**	**24,287**	**24,045**	**4,317,660**	**4,584,738**	**4,419,776**
Transportation, train and engine	**310,346**	**328,107**	**325,160**	**58,295,909**	**66,430,818**	**61,872,351**
Road conductors	35,322	36,635	36,474	7,913,094	8,743,492	8,284,685
Road brakemen and flagmen	71,347	74,416	73,944	11,658,734	13,037,942	12,215,976
Yard brakemen and yard helpers	51,005	55,139	54,407	8,225,202	9,727,200	8,915,222
Road engineers and motormen	41,737	43,557	43,495	10,524,749	11,866,047	11,117,373
Road firemen and helpers	43,465	45,332	45,214	7,851,349	8,833,987	8,257,821

Recent Employment Statistics

State Reports on Employment

California

THE following data, taken from the May, 1926, Labor Market Bulletin, issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of California, shows changes in volume of employment and pay roll from March to April, 1926, in 744 establishments in that State:

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 744 CALIFORNIA ESTABLISHMENTS BETWEEN MARCH AND APRIL, 1926

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in April, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with March, 1926	Amount in April, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with March, 1926
Stone, clay, and glass products:					
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products	11	1,821	−1.6	$50,855	−8.0
Lime, cement, plaster	8	2,125	+6.2	61,891	−3.5
Brick, tile, pottery	21	3,237	+.6	80,837	−3.0
Glass	5	798	+8.0	25,450	+6.1
Total	45	7,981	+2.2	219,033	−3.4
Metals, machinery, and conveyances:					
Agricultural implements	6	1,674	+12.7	46,978	+13.1
Automobiles, including bodies and parts	15	3,630	+5.4	120,789	+9.5
Brass, bronze, and copper products	9	1,117	+.4	30,542	−.4
Engines, pumps, boilers, and tanks	12	1,090	−16.3	37,238	−14.4
Iron and steel forgings, bolts, nuts, etc	8	2,980	+2.3	94,770	+3.6
Structural and ornamental steel	14	4,723	−4.2	139,615	−9.9
Ship and boat building and naval repairs	6	4,729	−.5	154,822	−1.4
Tin cans	3	2,259	−2.9	60,900	−1.6
Other iron foundry and machine shop products	72	7,966	+2.9	249,489	+4.0
Other sheet metal products	21	1,614	−.9	48,215	−3.4
Cars, locomotives, and railway repair shops	15	8,233	+.3	250,246	+.5
Total	181	40,015	+.4	1,233,604	+.3
Wood manufactures:					
Sawmills and logging	24	11,553	+15.8	320,561	+19.5
Planing mills, sash and door factories, etc	50	11,438	+11.5	315,942	+7.5
Other wood manufactures	44	5,078	−3.2	142,080	−2.6
Total	118	28,069	+10.2	778,583	+10.0
Leather and rubber goods:					
Tanning	8	842	−.9	23,794	−3.9
Finished leather products	6	529	−1.1	10,935	−5.0
Rubber products	8	2,736	+3.2	75,441	−.7
Total	22	4,107	+1.8	110,170	−1.8
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.:					
Explosives	4	491	+5.4	14,714	+1.6
Mineral oil refining	10	14,033	+2.2	517,381	−.3
Paints, dyes, and colors	8	680	−4.0	18,784	+1.7
Miscellaneous chemical products	11	1,817	−6.3	49,850	−4.0
Total	33	17,021	+1.0	600,729	−.5

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 744 CALIFORNIA ESTABLISHMENTS BETWEEN MARCH AND APRIL, 1926—Continued.

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in April, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with March, 1926	Amount in April, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with March, 1926
Printing and paper goods:					
Paper boxes, bags, cartons, etc	9	2,139	+.6	$53,547	+1.9
Printing	56	2,322	−2.6	82,409	−3.2
Publishing	17	2,326	+1.4	89,034	−.9
Other paper products	9	1,080	−3.9	25,461	−5.2
Total	91	7,867	−.8	250,451	−1.5
Textiles:					
Knit goods	12	1,031	+2.0	21,957	+1.4
Other textile products	7	1,573	+.3	35,106	+2.2
Total	19	2,604	+1.0	57,063	+1.9
Clothing, millinery, and laundering:					
Men's clothing	24	2,931	−2.7	65,196	−3.5
Women's clothing	10	870	+3.0	18,622	+14.1
Millinery	7	780	−9.8	15,280	−6.9
Laundries, cleaning, and dyeing	22	3,192	−.4	73,654	−.6
Total	63	7,773	−1.9	172,752	−1.0
Foods, beverages, and tobacco:					
Canning and preserving of fruits and vegetables	25	11,586	+169.6	229,367	+211.7
Canning and packing of fish	7	84	−92.2	2,072	−87.6
Confectionery and ice cream	29	1,646	−1.8	42,280	+1.5
Groceries, not elsewhere specified	4	383	−13.5	8,633	−14.9
Bread and bakery products	22	3,657	+1.0	101,536	+.4
Sugar	6	3,098	+5.0	84,035	−2.1
Slaughtering and meat products	14	2,574	−6.4	74,645	−6.6
Cigars and other tobacco products	5	980	+5.0	18,132	+1.3
Beverages	4	514	−.8	13,298	+6.6
Dairy products	10	2,409	+3.6	77,267	−2.3
Flour and grist mills	9	941	−8.4	24,954	−11.9
Ice manufacture	6	978	+4.3	31,766	+1.8
Other food products	14	903	+1.1	20,911	+2.1
Total	155	29,753	+26.9	728,896	+21.8
Water, light, and power	5	8,937	+4.8	262,056	−5.5
Miscellaneous	12	2,234	+4.4	53,471	−10.1
Total, all industries	744	156,361	+6.7	4,466,808	+3.8

Illinois

The May, 1926, issue of the Labor Bulletin, published by the Illinois department of labor, contains the following statistics showing the course of employment in April, 1926, as reported by 1,507 Illinois firms:

COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT AS REPORTED BY 1,507 ILLINOIS FIRMS, APRIL, 1925, AND MARCH, 1926, COMPARED WITH APRIL, 1926

Industry	April, 1926		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−)	
	Number of firms reporting	Number of employees	March, 1926, to April, 1926	April, 1925, to April, 1926
Stone, clay, and glass products:				
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products	25	1,953	+4.7	+7.5
Lime, cement, and plaster	9	494	+19.6	−2.4
Brick, tile, and pottery	34	5,301	+1.1	−5.1
Glass	18	5,191	−.3	+25.9
Total	86	12,939	+1.7	+11.3
Metals, machinery, conveyances:				
Iron and steel	121	35,784	+2.0	−1.3
Sheet-metal work and hardware	34	8,897	−2.5	−.7
Tools and cutlery	16	1,496	−5.0	−7.8
Cooking, heating, ventilating apparatus	26	4,495	+1.3	+4.4
Brass, copper, zinc, babbitt metal	23	3,060	−1.0	−1.3
Cars and locomotives	14	10,610	+11.5	−18.3
Automobiles and accessories	29	11,662	+5.4	+25.8
Machinery	52	18,717	+.5	+10.3
Electrical apparatus	29	34,873	+.4	−14.2
Agricultural implements	30	10,149	−2.4	+17.4
Instruments and appliances	9	2,065	−1.1	+20.8
Watches, watchcases, clocks, and jewelry	15	7,917	−.4	+2.5
Total	398	149,725	+1.4	+3.3
Wood products:				
Saw mill and planing mill products	32	2,834	+2.5	−2.7
Furniture and cabinet work	46	7,568	+.6	+9.0
Pianos, organs, and other musical instruments	16	2,915	−2.2	−.6
Miscellaneous wood products	23	2,807	−.8	+1.5
Household furnishings	7	772	+18.8	+23.8
Total	124	16,896	+.9	+4.1
Furs and leather goods:				
Leather	10	2,107	−3.1	−3.8
Furs and fur goods	8	86	+45.8	+45.7
Boots and shoes	29	11,268	−5.3	+.7
Miscellaneous leather goods	9	1,600	−7.5	+215.4
Total	56	15,061	−5.1	+1.2
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.:				
Drugs and chemicals	21	2,093	+3.8	−.8
Paints, dyes, and colors	24	2,653	+.8	+4.4
Mineral and vegetable oil	10	5,484	−2.1	+18.8
Miscellaneous chemical products	10	4,203	+4.5	+3.9
Total	[1] 55	14,433	+1.1	+6.8
Printing and paper goods:				
Paper boxes, bags, and tubes	40	4,328	−1.4	+32.4
Miscellaneous paper goods	16	1,110	+1.1	+3.7
Job printing	75	8,292	−4.5	+7.6
Newspapers and periodicals	13	3,846	.0	+35.0
Edition bookbinding	9	1,465	+2.9	----------
Total	153	19,041	−2.0	+9.9
Textiles:				
Cotton and woolen goods	8	1,255	−1.0	−3.5
Knit goods, cotton and woolen hosiery	9	3,255	−2.5	+11.4
Thread and twine	7	597	−10.1	−16.8
Total	24	5,107	−3.1	+3.5
Clothing, millinery, laundering:				
Men's clothing	7	9,615	−7.2	−2.0
Men's shirts and furnishings	5	1,127	−10.0	−4.5
Overalls and work clothing	10	644	−5.6	−12.3
Men's hats and caps	2	27	−10.0	−27.0
Women's clothing	22	1,447	−1.5	+3.1

[1] As given in the report; not the correct sum of the items.

COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT AS REPORTED BY 1,507 ILLINOIS FIRMS, APRIL, 1925, AND MARCH, 1926, COMPARED WITH APRIL, 1926—Continued

Industry	April, 1926		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−)	
	Number of firms reporting	Number of employees	March, 1926, to April, 1926	April, 1925, to April, 1926
Clothing, millinery, laundering—Continued.				
Women's underwear	9	808	−21.5	+46.7
Women's hats	7	622	−3.4	−25.1
Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing	36	2,714	−.1	+5.6
Total	98	17,004	−6.5	−1.8
Food, beverages, and tobacco:				
Flour, feed, and other cereal products	19	878	−1.2	+10.3
Fruit and vegetable canning and preserving	17	502	+12.3	−45.2
Miscellaneous groceries	27	4,815	−.1	+1.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	19	19,821	−3.6	−1.6
Dairy products	10	3,692	+1.7	+4.1
Bread and other bakery products	19	2,792	0.0	−2.8
Confectionery	20	1,997	−6.6	−.3
Beverages	19	1,459	+1.1	+4.9
Cigars and other tobacco products	13	1,118	−3.0	+11.4
Manufactured ice	22	228	+10.7	−3.5
Ice cream	16	756	+1.9	----------
Total	[1] 204	38,058	−2.0	+5.7
Total, all manufacturing industries	[1] 1,202	288,264	−.3	+3.7
Trade, wholesale and retail:				
Department stores	24	2,869	+1.6	+12.3
Wholesale dry goods	6	479	−.6	−4.4
Wholesale groceries	5	593	−.7	−6.1
Mail-order houses	6	12,898	−1.5	−20.8
Total	[1] 37	16,839	−1.0	−15.2
Public utilities:				
Water, light, and power	8	15,192	+2.4	+8.2
Telephone	9	28,847	+1.7	+7.8
Street railways	28	27,036	+1.2	+2.0
Railway car repair shops	26	11,760	−1.0	−2.8
Total	71	82,835	+1.3	+3.9
Coal mining	53	15,713	−.9	+28.6
Building and contracting:				
Building construction	114	6,515	+2.0	+29.8
Road construction	13	215	+44.3	−47.8
Miscellaneous contracting	27	1,711	+38.2	+62.1
Total	154	8,441	+8.6	+32.6
Total, all industries	[1] 1,507	412,092	+.2	+3.7

[1] As given in the report; not the correct sum of the items.

Iowa

The bureau of labor of Iowa, in its Iowa Employment Survey for May, 1926, gives the following statistics showing the per cent of changes in the number of employees in specified industries in that State in May, 1926, as compared with the previous month:

CHANGES IN VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN IOWA, APRIL TO MAY, 1926

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees on pay roll May, 1926	
		Number	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with April, 1926
Food and kindred products:			
Meat packing	6	4,472	+2.8
Cereals	3	1,178	−4.6
Flour	2	40	−7.0
Bakery products	9	1,037	+5.5
Confectionery	7	329	−8.6
Poultry, produce, butter, etc	8	1,094	+2.5
Sugar, starch, sirup, glucose, etc	5	1,478	−5.2
Other food products, coffee, etc	9	324	−7.2
Total	49	9,952	+0.5
Textiles:			
Clothing, men's	7	681	+4.0
Millinery	2	111	+.9
Clothing, women's, and woolen goods	3	548	−1.3
Hosiery, awnings, etc	5	673	+2.0
Buttons, pearl	6	493	−5.0
Total	23	2,506	−3.6
Iron and steel works:			
Foundry and machine shops	30	2,284	−3.2
Brass, bronze products, plumbers' supplies	5	425	+4.2
Autos, tractors, and engines	5	1,949	+1.2
Furnaces	7	537	−2.2
Pumps	4	388	+1.5
Agricultural implements	9	1,113	−3.0
Washing machines	7	565	−2.9
Total	67	7,261	−1.3
Lumber products:			
Millwork, interiors, etc	16	2,004	−.2
Furniture, desks, etc	9	1,065	+.5
Refrigerators	3	170	−2.9
Coffins, undertakers' supplies	5	176	+.6
Carriages, wagons, truck bodies	6	178	−7.3
Total	39	3,593	−1.3
Leather products:			
Shoes	3	344	+2.7
Saddlery and harness	5	204	−3.8
Fur goods and tanning	5	130	+2.4
Gloves and mittens	3	257	−3.4
Total	16	935	−.5
Paper products, printing and publishing:			
Paper products	4	171	−5.5
Printing and publishing	16	2,523	−.4
Total	20	2,694	−.8
Patent medicines and compounds	8	371	−3.6
Stone and clay products:			
Cement, plaster, gypsum	7	1,660	+3.7
Brick and tile (clay)	12	1,104	+8.0
Marble, granite, crushed rock and stone	3	78	−4.9
Total	22	2,842	+5.5
Tobacco and cigars	5	337	−.3
Railway car shops	5	7,321	−1.7
Various industries:			
Auto tires and tubes			
Brooms and brushes	3	142	.0
Laundries	4	195	+4.8
Mercantile	10	3,435	+.7

CHANGES IN VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN IOWA, APRIL TO MAY, 1926—Continued

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees on pay roll May, 1926	
		Number	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with April, 1926
Various industries—Continued.			
Public service	4	1,428	+1.9
Seeds	2	366	−4.9
Wholesale houses	23	1,228	−1.2
Commission houses	9	365	−.3
Other industries	13	1,786	−1.2
Total	68	8,945	+.04
Grand total	322	46,757	−.4

Maryland

The commissioner of labor and statistics of Maryland has furnished the following statistics on changes in volume of employment in that State from April to May, 1926:

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL MARYLAND ESTABLISHMENTS IN APRIL AND MAY, 1926

Industry	Number of establishments reporting for both months	Employment		Pay roll	
		Number of employees May, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with April, 1926	Amount May, 1926	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) as compared with April, 1926
Bakery	4	279	+13.4	$7,022	+19.0
Beverages and soft drinks	3	161	+21.9	4,720	+25.8
Boots and shoes	8	1,028	−8.7	16,674	−18.7
Boxes, paper and fancy	9	499	−6.7	7,597	−3.7
Boxes, wooden	6	359	−6.1	6,761	−.9
Brass and bronze	3	2,443	+3.0	58,906	+.7
Brick, tile, etc	6	866	+2.0	23,881	+4.6
Brushes	5	700	+.4	12,711	−.3
Car building and repairing	4	4,387	−2.6	154,689	+42.2
Chemicals	5	622	+3.4	16,100	+3.1
Clothing, men's outer garments	5	2,306	−3.0	39,349	−10.1
Clothing, women's outer garments	7	1,003	−4.4	13,294	−2.0
Confectionery	6	700	−4.6	10,355	−3.9
Cotton goods	4	1,728	−2.5	30,377	−3.5
Fertilizer	4	496	−16.8	10,960	−15.9
Food preparation	4	152	+10.9	3,684	+5.9
Foundry	9	942	----------	26,200	+.4
Furnishing goods, men's	5	993	+3.1	12,725	−6.0
Furniture	9	574	−2.3	14,677	+1.3
Glass manufacturing	3	672	−1.1	15,228	+3.9
Ice cream	3	191	+11.0	5,690	+6.5
Leather goods	6	716	+1.5	13,614	+.7
Lithographing	5	600	+1.1	17,494	−.8
Lumber and planing	8	567	+1.4	14,564	+1.8
Mattresses and spring beds	3	91	−6.2	2,237	−3.7
Patent medicines	4	835	−.6	13,528	+.6
Pianos	3	946	+2.7	27,136	+2.2
Plumber's supplies	4	1,541	+7.4	44,562	+13.8
Printing	9	1,290	−3.0	45,969	−1.4
Rubber tire manufacturing	1	2,650	−4.7	142,661	−21.9
Shipbuilding	3	802	+9.8	24,843	+22.2
Shirts, etc	5	840	+.1	11,283	−.9
Silk goods	3	505	−6.2	6,885	−15.1
Stamping and enameled ware	4	750	+3.1	15,198	+4.5
Tinware	4	2,841	+2.3	63,955	+2.8
Tobacco	8	835	−5.1	13,205	−1.6
Umbrellas	3	342	−8.4	5,502	−9.1
Miscellaneous	17	4,298	−1.1	105,312	−1.7

Massachussetts

The department of labor and industries of Massachusetts press release shows the following changes in volume of employment in various industries in that State from March to April, 1926:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN 984 MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, WEEK INCLUDING OR ENDING NEAREST TO MARCH 15 AND APRIL 15, 1926

Industry	Number of establishments reporting	Number of wage earners employed			
		March, 1926	April, 1926		
			Full time	Part time	Total
Automobiles, including bodies and parts	17	5,616	4,733	99	4,832
Bookbinding	15	973	609	363	972
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	45	2,027	661	1,267	1,928
Boots and shoes	69	22,265	6,445	14,129	20,574
Boxes, paper	27	2,105	852	1,191	2,043
Boxes, wooden packing	13	1,186	1,085	95	1,180
Bread and other bakery products	51	4,032	3,536	419	3,955
Carpets and rugs	5	3,818	1,835	1,943	3,778
Cars and general shop construction and repairs, steam railroads	4	2,861	2,723	160	2,883
Clothing, men's	29	3,995	3,032	919	3,951
Clothing, women's	34	1,720	1,350	348	1,698
Confectionery	13	3,181	1,206	1,718	2,924
Copper, tin, sheet iron, etc	15	402	444		444
Cotton goods	54	41,521	22,378	18,943	41,321
Cutlery and tools	25	5,351	4,851	516	5,367
Dyeing and finishing textiles	8	6,966	723	6,130	6,853
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	13	13,441	10,791	2,178	12,969
Foundry products	27	2,990	2,028	920	2,948
Furniture	32	3,631	3,074	378	3,452
Gas and by-products	13	1,208	1,185		1,185
Hosiery and knit goods	12	5,227	2,244	2,881	5,125
Jewelry	35	2,954	1,803	1,015	2,818
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	24	4,202	2,621	1,485	4,106
Machine-shop products	43	8,246	7,260	1,058	8,318
Machine tools	22	2,001	1,479	495	1,974
Musical instruments	12	1,267	905	392	1,297
Paper and wood pulp	21	6,024	5,061	961	6,022
Printing and publishing, book and job	39	3,320	2,408	956	3,364
Printing and publishing, newspaper	19	2,346	2,365	30	2,395
Rubber footwear	3	10,326	10,295		10,295
Rubber goods	7	2,697	1,268	1,235	2,503
Silk goods	10	4,091	1,918	2,167	4,085
Slaughtering and meat packing	5	1,556	197	1,272	1,469
Stationery goods	8	1,374	1,353		1,353
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	8	1,858	1,776	44	1,820
Stoves and stove linings	5	1,835	612	1,159	1,771
Textile machinery and parts	14	5,343	3,106	2,017	5,123
Tobacco	5	792	92	148	240
Woolen and worsted goods	56	19,653	7,321	11,564	18,885
All other industries	127	30,453	16,101	14,432	30,533
Total, all industries	984	244,854	143,726	95,027	238,753

New York

The New York State Department of Labor has furnished the following tabulation of changes in employment and pay rolls in New York State factories in April, 1926. The table is based on returns from a fixed list of approximately 1,700 factories. The weekly pay roll for the middle week of April was $14,691,148.

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLL IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES FROM APRIL, 1925, AND MARCH, 1926, TO APRIL, 1926

Industry	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−)			
	March, 1926, to April, 1926		April, 1925, to April, 1926	
	Employment	Pay roll	Employment	Pay roll
Cement	+10.3	+15.0	+19.4	+23.1
Brick	+72.9	+48.2	+38.3	+37.0
Pottery	+3.6	+4.4	−1.1	+3.8
Glass	−6.9	−6.9	−2.9	−2.7
Pig iron	−5.7	−4.3	+13.6	+16.2
Structural iron	−2.9	−1.4	+2.5	+8.3
Hardware	−.2	−.4	+12.6	+12.4
Stamped ware	+.3	−2.8	+7.7	+5.4
Cutlery	(1)	−1.4	−8.5	−7.6
Steam and hot water	−3.7	−3.1	+17.9	+28.6
Stoves	−.4	+4.7	+12.0	+13.1
Agricultural implements	−15.1	−14.6	−2.6	−2.2
Electrical machinery, etc	−3.8	−2.2	+5.1	+9.8
Foundry	+1.5	+4.2	+4.2	+13.3
Autos and parts	+.5	+2.2	−.4	+.3
Cars, locomotives, etc	−4.2	−4.4	+18.0	+26.9
Railway repair shops	+.8	−.1	+2.4	+5.1
Millwork	+.5	+1.1	+3.3	+7.7
Sawmills	−5.6	−3.8	−13.0	−9.3
Furniture and cabinet work	−2.2	−3.6	+5.9	+8.8
Furniture	−1.5	−4.1	+6.2	+7.6
Pianos	+6.7	+8.0	+4.4	+19.9
Leather	+3.1	+5.4	+19.7	+34.2
Boots and shoes	−2.7	−2.7	−6.4	−8.3
Drugs	+1.6	+1.9	+4.1	+6.0
Petroleum	−2.4	−4.3	−8.5	−7.6
Paper boxes	−1.4	−1.1	+2.8	+5.7
Printing, newspaper	(2)	+1.0	+11.0	+20.3
Printing, book and job	+.2	+.4	+1.0	+6.4
Silk goods	−6.7	−11.2	−.3	−3.6
Carpets	−.7	+1.3	−1.1	−4.2
Woolens	−.8	+3.4	+4.9	+7.3
Cotton goods	−1.4	−.3	−.4	+7.1
Cotton and woolen	−.8	−2.3	−2.3	−2.6
Dyeing	−.6	+.1	−.2	+6.8
Men's clothing	−9.6	−20.2	+2.0	+6.9
Shirts and collars	−3.1	+.7	−7.6	−5.6
Women's clothing	−6.6	−19.4	−4.7	−4.2
Women's headwear	+9.1	+14.6	+1.3	+14.6
Flour	−3.9	−4.6	−4.8	−1.4
Sugar	−1.2	+1.0	−2.9	+4.4
Slaughtering	−2.0	+1.7	−2.0	+3.3
Bread	−2.7	−9.4	+2.7	(1)
Confectionery	−7.3	−10.2	+2.6	+8.0
Cigars	−3.3	−2.6	−21.3	−8.9
Total	−1.4	−2.0	+1.6	+6.0

[1] Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

[2] No change.

Oklahoma

The May 15, 1926, issue of the Oklahoma Labor Market, published by the bureau of labor statistics of Oklahoma, shows the changes in employment and pay rolls in 710 establishments in that State from March to April, 1926, as follows:

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN 710 INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN OKLAHOMA, MARCH TO APRIL, 1926

Industry	Number of plants reporting	April, 1926			
		Employment		Pay roll	
		Number of employees	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) compared with March, 1926	Amount	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) compared with March, 1926
Cottonseed-oil mills	13	320	−18.6	$6,558	−10.7
Food production:					
Bakeries	35	532	+3.1	13,892	−.1
Confections	7	46	−4.2	800	−.5
Creameries and dairies	11	113	+1.8	2,381	+8.6
Flour mills	44	344	−.9	7,906	.0
Ice and ice cream	33	318	+11.6	8,762	+18.8
Meat and poultry	14	1,340	−12.9	33,015	−7.2
Lead and zinc:					
Mines and mills	46	2,975	−16.0	83,930	−19.2
Smelters	17	2,007	−3.0	55,956	−.3
Metals and machinery:					
Auto repairs, etc	29	1,230	−4.3	37,771	+84.2
Foundries and machine shops	38	928	+1.3	25,720	+1.4
Tank construction and erection	16	709	+7.1	17,247	+5.1
Oil industry:					
Production and gasoline extraction	123	4,476	+.9	137,293	+5.1
Refineries	66	6,016	+4.3	193,144	+5.8
Printing: Job work	24	264	+6.0	8,101	+3.0
Public utilities:					
Steam railroad shops	11	1,794	+4.3	49,482	+7.5
Street railways	6	699	−.9	17,651	+8.7
Water, light, and power	50	1,025	−2.3	29,390	+6.5
Stone, clay, and glass:					
Brick and tile	11	419	+12.0	7,722	+4.7
Cement and plaster	6	988	+3.5	22,098	−9.8
Stone	6	268	+32.7	4,804	+77.4
Glass manufacturing	9	1,149	+8.8	29,804	+32.6
Textiles and cleaning:					
Textile manufacturing	9	472	+8.3	8,680	+14.0
Laundries and cleaning	52	1,378	−2.0	24,393	+.9
Woodworking:					
Sawmills	14	371	+2.8	6,085	+19.9
Millwork, etc	20	358	−.8	9,671	+.1
Total, all industries	710	30,539	−.7	842,252	+3.7

Wisconsin

The Wisconsin Labor Market for May, 1926, issued by the State industrial commission, contains the following data on volume of employment in Wisconsin industries in April, 1926:

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF PAY ROLL IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN WISCONSIN INDUSTRIES FROM APRIL, 1925, AND MARCH, 1926, TO APRIL, 1926

Industry	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−)			
	March to April, 1926		April, 1925, to April, 1926	
	Employment	Pay roll	Employment	Pay roll
Manual				
Agriculture			+14.9	−5.0
Logging	−10.5		+30.0	+26.5
Mining	−3.4	+7.8		+6.6
Lead and zinc	−13.1	−1.9	−1.9	+5.0
Iron	+31.6	+36.4	+4.7	+10.1
Stone crushing and quarrying	+4.0	+5.1	−24.2	−25.4
Manufacturing	−1.1	−1.4	+2.6	+6.3
Stone and allied industries	+13.2	+6.0	−12.5	−11.4
Brick, tile, and cement blocks	+50.0	+45.6	−12.8	−19.8
Stone finishing	+4.7	+.3	−12.4	−9.5
Metal	−1.0	−1.5	+8.7	+12.9
Pig iron and rolling mill products	−1.3	−8.5	−14.1	−21.5
Structural-iron work	+8.9	+2.8	+17.4	+21.1
Foundries and machine shops	−5.1	−9.1	+11.7	+18.4
Railroad repair shops	+1.5	+.7	−4.3	−3.2
Stoves	−1.7	+1.9	+15.4	+16.1
Aluminum and enamel ware	−3.4	−9.0	−6.5	−5.8
Machinery	+.9	−.4	+25.9	+26.7
Automobiles	+3.8	+12.2	+13.0	+17.9
Other metal products	−3.4	−6.6	+1.0	+10.8
Wood	−1.8	−2.2	−.5	+.6
Sawmills and planing mills	−2.8	+3.0	−5.3	−2.9
Box factories	+3.1	+2.7	+12.2	+10.8
Panel and veneer mills	+4.8	−5.4	+7.4	+6.3
Furniture	−.9	−9.9	−.2	+7.1
Sash, door, and interior finish	−4.5	−2.6	+.5	+.4
Other wood products	−1.5	−1.1	+1.5	−5.3
Rubber	−.7	−2.7	−5.6	−13.8
Leather	+.2	−1.6	−1.7	+8.1
Tanning	−5.8	−5.5	−4.4	+4.7
Boots and shoes	+5.4	+5.2	−2.7	+17.4
Other leather products	+3.1	−4.3	+4.9	+.3
Paper	+2.2	+4.3	−.4	+.4
Paper and pulp mills	+3.5	+7.2	−.1	+.2
Paper boxes	−.8	−3.0	−2.1	+11.0
Other paper products	−1.0	−4.3	−.3	−5.7
Textiles	−6.1	−11.1	−1.7	−1.9
Hosiery and other knit goods	−3.3	−2.8	−.6	−1.3
Clothing	−8.8	−22.0	+2.7	+.7
Other textile products	−10.3	−18.0	−11.4	−8.1
Foods	−2.8	−1.1	−1.6	+6.8
Meat packing	−10.4	−6.6	+3.8	+18.7
Baking and confectionery	−1.4	+.7	−2.2	+11.2
Milk products	−.4	−1.4	−12.4	−7.6
Canning and preserving	−3.8	+.3	−28.7	−30.4
Flour mills	−9.6	−3.8	+21.2	+9.2
Tobacco manufacturing	−2.9	−2.2	+3.7	+5.3
Other food products	+2.6	+2.0	+14.9	+18.7
Light and power	+.1	+1.5	+7.1	+3.4
Printing and publishing	+1.8	+3.0	+3.8	+8.4
Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing	+1.3	+1.9	−1.9	−6.6
Chemical (including soap, glue and explosives)	−3.2	−2.8	−3.7	−.4
Construction:				
Building	+1.6	+7.6	−15.7	−8.0
Highway	+83.5		−44.1	
Railroad	+9.2	+5.7	+1.5	+2.5
Marine, dredging, sewer digging	+17.9	+10.3	+141.7	+184.4
Communication:				
Steam railways	−4.9	−6.6	+4.1	+5.6
Electric railways	+8.0	+.9	+7.3	+3.8
Express, telephone, and telegraph	+4.1	+2.0	−2.2	+.5
Wholesale trade	+3.3	+7.2	+.3	+13.0
Hotels and restaurants	−2.1		−3.1	
Nonmanual				
Manufacturing, mines, and quarries	+.1	−.9	+3.7	+2.1
Construction	+2.1	−1.0	−7.0	−.3
Communication	+1.0	+4.9	+3.2	+4.3
Wholesale trade	+2.9	+5.4	+3.4	+4.9
Retail trade—sales force only	+2.0	−3.1	+11.1	+4.1
Miscellaneous professional services	−.6	+5.4	+9.8	+5.7
Hotels and restaurants	+3.2		−3.5	

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING

Retail Prices of Food in the United States

THE following tables are compiled from monthly reports of actual selling prices [1] received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers.

Table 1 shows for the United States retail prices of food, May 15, 1925, and April 15 and May 15, 1926, as well as the percentage changes in the year and in the month. For example, the retail price per pound of potatoes was 2.7 cents in May, 1925; 6.7 cents in April, 1926; and 6 cents in May, 1926. These figures show an increase of 122 per cent in the year and a decrease of 10 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food combined shows an increase of 6.3 per cent May 15, 1926, as compared with May 15, 1925, and a decrease of 0.8 per cent May 15, 1926, as compared with April 15, 1926.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE MAY 15, 1926, COMPARED WITH APRIL 15, 1926, AND MAY 15, 1925

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers]

Article	Unit	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) May 15, 1926, compared with—	
		May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926
		Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*		
Sirloin steak	Pound	40.8	41.1	41.5	+2	+1
Round steak	do	35.0	35.2	35.8	+2	+2
Rib roast	do	29.8	30.2	30.4	+2	+1
Chuck roast	do	22.1	22.3	22.5	+2	+1
Plate beef	do	14.0	14.7	14.6	+4	−1
Pork chops	do	36.0	38.3	40.3	+12	+5
Bacon	do	46.4	48.5	49.3	+6	+2
Ham	do	53.0	54.5	55.9	+5	+3
Lamb, leg of	do	38.6	37.9	39.9	+3	+5
Hens	do	37.9	40.5	41.0	+8	+1
Salmon, canned, red	do	31.2	37.8	37.9	+21	+0.3
Milk, fresh	Quart	13.7	13.9	13.9	+1	0
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can.	11.2	11.5	11.5	+3	0
Butter	Pound	51.9	50.9	50.0	−4	−2
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	30.0	30.5	30.2	+1	−1
Cheese	do	36.3	36.5	36.0	−1	−1
Lard	do	22.6	21.5	21.5	−5	0
Vegetable lard substitute	do	25.7	25.7	25.6	−0.4	−0.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	39.3	38.6	38.9	−1	+1
Bread	Pound	9.4	9.4	9.4	0	0
Flour	do	6.1	6.1	6.1	0	0
Corn meal	do	5.4	5.1	5.1	−6	0
Rolled oats	do	9.3	9.1	9.1	−2	0
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	11.0	11.0	11.0	0	0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	24.6	25.4	25.4	+3	0

[1] In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the bureau publishes the prices of gas and electricity from each of 51 cities for the dates for which these data are secured.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE MAY 15, 1926, COMPARED WITH APRIL 15, 1926, AND MAY 15, 1925—Continued

Article	Unit	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) May 15, 1926, compared with—	
		May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926
		Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*		
Macaroni	Pound	20.5	20.2	20.3	−1	+0.4
Rice	do	11.0	11.7	11.7	+6	0
Beans, navy	do	10.3	9.3	9.2	−11	−1
Potatoes	do	2.7	6.7	6.0	+122	−10
Onions	do	8.7	6.3	7.7	−11	+22
Cabbage	do	5.6	7.4	6.2	+11	−16
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	12.5	12.0	11.9	−5	−1
Corn, canned	do	18.1	16.5	16.5	−9	0
Peas, canned	do	18.5	17.6	17.5	−5	−1
Tomatoes, canned	do	13.8	12.0	11.9	−14	−1
Sugar, granulated	Pound	7.2	6.6	6.7	−7	+2
Tea	do	75.6	76.3	76.4	+1	+0.1
Coffee	do	52.2	51.1	51.0	−2	−0.2
Prunes	do	17.3	17.1	17.1	−1	0
Raisins	do	14.5	14.6	14.7	+1	+1
Bananas	Dozen	37.3	35.5	35.4	−5	−0.3
Oranges	do	55.5	52.6	53.1	−4	+1
All articles combined					+6.3	−0.8

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on May 15, 1913, and on May 15 of each year from 1920 to 1926, together with percentage changes in May of each of these specified years, compared with May, 1913. For example, the retail prices per pound of sugar was: 5.4 cents in May, 1913; 25.4 cents in May, 1920; 8.4 cents in May, 1921; 6.6 cents in May, 1922; 11.2 cents in May, 1923; 9.2 cents in May, 1924; 7.2 cents in May, 1925; and 6.7 cents in May, 1926.

As compared with May, 1913, these figures show increases of 370 per cent in May, 1920; 56 per cent in May, 1921; 22 per cent in May, 1922; 107 per cent in May, 1923; 70 per cent in May, 1924; 33 per cent in May, 1925; and 24 per cent in May, 1926.

The cost of the various articles of food combined shows an increase of 66.7 per cent in May, 1926, as compared with May, 1913.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, MAY 15, OF CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES COMPARED WITH MAY 15, 1913

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers]

Article	Unit	Average retail price on May 15—								Per cent of increase May 15 of each specified year compared with May 15, 1913						
		1913	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.							
Sirloin steak	Pound	25.6	43.4	40.1	37.7	38.7	40.6	40.8	41.5	70	57	47	51	59	59	62
Round steak	do	22.2	39.9	35.6	32.5	33.0	34.6	35.0	35.8	80	60	46	49	56	58	61
Rib roast	do	20.0	33.4	30.2	27.9	28.2	29.4	29.8	30.4	67	51	40	41	47	49	52
Chuck roast	do	16.1	26.5	22.0	19.8	19.9	21.3	22.1	22.5	65	37	23	24	32	37	40
Plate beef	do	12.2	18.8	15.0	13.0	12.7	13.4	14.0	14.6	54	23	7	4	10	15	20
Pork chops	do	20.9	42.5	35.1	34.4	30.0	29.9	36.0	40.3	103	68	65	44	43	72	93
Bacon	do	26.9	52.6	43.5	39.8	39.1	36.1	46.4	49.3	96	62	48	45	34	72	83
Ham	do	26.7	55.5	48.7	51.3	45.3	44.7	53.0	55.9	108	82	92	70	67	99	109
Lamb, leg of	do	19.4	42.1	34.7	39.2	36.7	39.4	38.6	39.9	117	79	102	89	103	99	106
Hens	do	22.2	47.1	41.3	37.7	36.2	36.6	37.9	41.0	112	86	70	63	65	71	85
Salmon, canned, red	do	----	[1] 37.1	37.9	32.3	31.2	31.1	31.2	37.9	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.8	16.2	14.4	12.5	13.5	13.6	13.7	13.9	84	64	42	53	55	56	58
Milk, evaporated	[2]	----	14.7	14.3	11.0	12.2	11.7	11.2	11.5	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Butter	Pound	35.9	71.6	42.5	44.9	52.1	46.1	51.9	50.0	99	18	25	45	28	45	39
Oleomargarine (all butter substitute)	do	----	39.6	29.4	27.1	28.3	29.2	30.0	30.2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Cheese	do	21.9	42.9	31.5	30.8	35.5	34.6	36.3	36.0	96	44	41	62	58	66	64
Lard	do	15.8	20.8	16.7	17.0	17.3	17.1	22.6	21.5	89	6	8	9	8	43	36
Vegetable lard substitute	do	----	37.2	21.7	22.2	22.6	24.5	25.7	25.6	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	26.3	52.9	33.4	33.5	35.1	32.8	39.3	38.9	101	27	27	33	25	49	48
Bread	Pound	5.6	11.5	9.9	8.8	8.7	8.7	9.4	9.4	105	77	57	55	55	68	68
Flour	do	3.3	8.7	5.7	5.3	4.8	4.6	6.1	6.1	164	73	61	45	39	85	85
Corn meal	do	2.9	6.7	4.5	3.8	4.0	4.4	5.4	5.1	131	55	31	38	52	86	76
Boiled oats	do	----	10.5	9.9	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.3	9.1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Corn flakes	[3]	----	14.1	12.6	10.0	9.7	9.7	11.0	11.0	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Wheat cereal	[4]	----	30.1	29.8	25.8	24.5	24.3	24.6	25.4	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Macaroni	Pound	----	20.7	21.0	20.1	19.7	19.5	20.5	20.3	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Rice	do	8.6	18.7	8.8	9.5	9.4	9.9	11.0	11.7	117	2	10	9	15	28	36
Beans, Navy	do	----	11.8	7.9	9.7	11.4	9.8	10.3	9.2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Potatoes	do	1.6	9.6	2.2	3.0	2.7	2.9	2.7	6.0	500	38	88	69	81	69	275
Onions	do	----	8.0	5.6	9.8	7.8	6.7	8.7	7.7	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Cabbage	do	----	8.4	5.6	5.7	8.0	7.7	5.6	6.2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Beans, baked	[5]	----	16.8	14.6	13.1	13.0	12.7	12.5	11.9	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Corn, canned	[5]	----	18.6	15.9	15.5	15.4	15.8	18.1	16.5	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Peas, canned	[5]	----	19.1	17.5	17.8	17.5	18.1	18.5	17.5	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Tomatoes, canned	[5]	----	15.1	11.4	13.7	13.0	13.0	13.8	11.9	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.4	25.4	8.4	6.6	11.2	9.2	7.2	6.7	370	56	22	107	70	33	24
Tea	do	54.4	74.0	70.0	67.9	69.3	71.1	75.6	76.3	36	29	25	27	31	39	40
Coffee	do	29.8	49.2	36.1	35.9	38.0	42.2	52.2	51.0	65	21	20	28	42	75	71
Prunes	do	----	28.3	18.7	20.4	19.5	17.6	17.3	17.1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Raisins	do	----	27.4	31.0	24.2	17.8	15.5	14.5	14.7	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Bananas	Dozen	----	43.2	40.7	36.2	37.0	36.6	37.3	35.4	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Oranges	do	----	71.8	46.7	62.0	55.3	41.6	55.5	53.1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
All articles combined.[6]	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	122.9	49.8	44.0	48.3	45.9	56.9	66.7

[1] Both pink and red. [2] 15–16 ounce can. [3] 8-ounce package.
[4] 28-ounce package. [5] No. 2 can.
[6] Beginning with January, 1921, index numbers showing the trend in the retail cost of food have been composed of the articles shown in Tables 1 and 2, weighted according to the consumption of the average family. From January, 1913, to December, 1920, the index numbers included the following articles: Sirloin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, and tea.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 articles of food for which prices have been secured since 1913, as well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for $1 in specified years, 1913 to 1925, and in April and May, 1926.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR $1, IN SPECIFIED YEARS, 1913 TO 1925, AND IN APRIL AND MAY, 1926

Year	Sirloin steak		Round steak		Rib roast		Chuck roast		Plate beef		Pork chops	
	Average retail price	Amt. for $1	Average retail price	Amt. for $1	Average retail price	Amt. for $1	Average retail price	Amt. for $1	Average retail price	Amt. for $1	Average retail price	Amt. for $1
	Cents per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	25.4	3.9	22.3	4.5	19.8	5.1	16.0	6.3	12.1	8.3	21.0	4.8
1920	43.7	2.3	39.5	2.5	33.2	3.0	26.2	3.8	18.3	5.5	42.3	2.4
1921	38.8	2.6	34.4	2.9	29.1	3.4	21.2	4.7	14.3	7.0	34.9	2.9
1922	37.4	2.7	32.3	3.1	27.6	3.6	19.7	5.1	12.8	7.8	33.0	3.0
1923	39.1	2.6	33.5	3.0	28.4	3.5	20.2	5.0	12.9	7.8	30.4	3.3
1924	39.6	2.5	33.8	3.0	28.8	3.5	20.8	4.8	13.2	7.6	30.8	3.2
1925	40.6	2.5	34.7	2.9	29.6	3.4	21.6	4.6	13.8	7.2	36.6	2.7
1926:												
April	41.1	2.4	35.2	2.8	30.2	3.3	22.3	4.5	14.7	6.8	38.3	2.6
May	41.5	2.4	35.8	2.8	30.4	3.3	22.5	4.4	14.6	6.8	40.3	2.5

Year	Bacon		Ham		Hens		Milk		Butter		Cheese	
	Cents per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per qt.*	*Qts.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	27.0	3.7	26.9	3.7	21.3	4.7	8.9	11.2	38.3	2.6	22.1	4.5
1920	52.3	1.9	55.5	1.8	44.7	2.2	16.7	6.0	70.1	1.4	41.6	2.4
1921	42.7	2.3	48.8	2.0	39.7	2.5	14.6	6.8	51.7	1.9	34.0	2.9
1922	39.8	2.5	48.8	2.0	36.0	2.8	13.1	7.6	47.9	2.1	32.9	3.0
1923	39.1	2.6	45.5	2.2	35.0	2.9	13.8	7.2	55.4	1.8	36.9	2.7
1924	37.7	2.7	45.3	2.2	35.3	2.8	13.8	7.2	51.7	1.9	35.3	2.8
1925	46.7	2.1	52.6	1.9	36.6	2.7	14.0	7.1	54.8	1.8	36.7	2.7
1926:												
April	48.5	2.1	54.5	1.8	40.5	2.5	13.9	7.2	50.9	2.0	36.5	2.7
May	49.3	2.0	55.9	1.8	41.0	2.4	13.9	7.2	50.0	2.0	36.0	2.8

Year	Lard		Eggs		Bread		Flour		Corn meal		Rice	
	Cents per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Cents per doz.*	*Dozs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	15.8	6.3	34.5	2.9	5.6	17.9	3.3	30.3	3.0	33.3	8.7	11.5
1920	29.5	3.4	68.1	1.5	11.5	8.7	8.1	12.3	6.5	15.4	17.4	5.7
1921	18.0	5.6	50.9	2.0	9.9	10.1	5.8	17.2	4.5	22.2	9.5	10.5
1922	17.0	5.9	44.4	2.3	8.7	11.5	5.1	19.6	3.9	25.6	9.5	10.5
1923	17.7	5.6	46.5	2.2	8.7	11.5	4.7	21.3	4.1	24.4	9.5	10.5
1924	19.0	5.3	47.8	2.1	8.8	11.4	4.9	20.4	4.7	21.3	10.1	9.9
1925	23.3	4.3	52.1	1.9	9.4	10.6	6.1	16.4	5.4	18.5	11.1	9.0
1926:												
April	21.5	4.7	38.6	2.6	9.4	10.6	6.1	16.4	5.1	19.6	11.7	8.5
May	21.5	4.7	38.9	2.6	9.4	10.6	6.1	16.4	5.1	19.6	11.7	8.5

Year	Potatoes		Sugar		Tea		Coffee					
	Cents per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Cents per lb.*	*Lbs.*				
1913	1.7	58.8	5.5	18.2	54.4	1.8	29.8	3.4	-------	-------	-------	-------
1920	6.3	15.9	19.4	5.2	73.3	1.4	47.0	2.1	-------	-------	-------	-------
1921	3.1	32.3	8.0	12.5	69.7	1.4	36.3	2.8	-------	-------	-------	-------
1922	2.8	35.7	7.3	13.7	68.1	1.5	36.1	2.8	-------	-------	-------	-------
1923	2.9	34.5	10.1	9.9	69.5	1.4	37.7	2.7	-------	-------	-------	-------
1924	2.7	37.0	9.2	10.9	71.5	1.4	43.3	2.3	-------	-------	-------	-------
1925	3.6	27.8	7.2	13.9	75.5	1.3	51.5	1.9	-------	-------	-------	-------
1926:												
April	6.7	14.9	6.6	15.2	76.4	1.3	51.1	2.0	-------	-------	-------	-------
May	6.0	16.7	6.7	14.9	76.4	1.3	51.0	2.0	-------	-------	-------	-------

Retail Prices of Foods in

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 4 for 39 cities for 12 other cities prices are shown for the same dates, with the ex until after 1913.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

[Exact comparisons of prices in different cities can not be made for some articles,

Article	Unit	Atlanta, Ga.				Baltimore, Md.				Birmingham, Ala.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
		1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	24.0	38.4	40.6	40.8	23.3	41.5	39.5	40.3	26.8	38.4	39.8	40.0
Round steak	do	21.0	34.4	36.5	36.3	22.0	37.2	35.5	36.4	22.5	34.0	34.9	34.9
Rib roast	do	19.1	29.3	31.5	31.8	18.7	32.4	30.0	30.1	19.9	28.2	27.3	26.5
Chuck roast	do	14.9	21.7	24.2	24.6	15.7	22.8	21.7	22.0	16.8	22.7	22.4	22.8
Plate beef	do	10.8	13.5	14.3	13.6	12.8	15.3	14.8	14.4	10.5	14.8	14.7	15.5
Pork chops	do	22.5	35.0	36.5	37.3	18.3	37.0	38.2	39.5	20.8	34.5	36.2	37.9
Bacon, sliced	do	31.0	43.6	47.5	47.5	23.3	41.3	43.8	45.3	33.1	45.9	47.9	48.8
Ham, sliced	do	29.0	56.3	54.2	54.6	31.0	55.7	59.1	59.1	30.0	52.5	53.0	55.5
Lamb, leg of	do	20.0	37.1	36.1	36.4	18.0	41.6	39.0	42.4	21.7	37.0	36.3	38.1
Hens	do	19.6	34.0	37.4	38.1	22.6	39.8	42.8	43.2	18.0	33.8	36.1	37.6
Salmon, canned	do	-----	33.0	38.1	38.1	-----	27.7	36.8	36.7	-----	32.1	41.4	41.5
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	16.0	20.0	20.0	8.8	13.0	13.0	13.0	10.3	19.0	20.0	20.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	-----	13.1	13.5	13.5	-----	11.1	11.3	11.3	-----	12.4	12.5	12.6
Butter	Pound	39.3	55.7	55.2	54.5	38.6	58.1	55.8	54.2	41.0	56.1	57.2	56.1
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	-----	32.2	31.9	32.5	-----	28.1	30.8	30.8	-----	35.6	36.2	36.2
Cheese	do	25.0	34.8	33.7	34.3	22.0	36.6	34.9	34.4	21.8	36.2	35.8	35.1
Lard	do	15.5	22.3	21.5	21.4	14.3	22.1	19.6	19.7	15.8	23.3	22.0	22.3
Vegetable lard substitute	do	-----	25.0	24.4	24.2	-----	25.4	24.1	24.1	-----	22.2	22.1	22.0
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	22.6	36.2	37.9	39.0	22.4	37.4	35.9	36.2	23.8	37.9	38.2	38.9
Bread	Pound	6.0	10.3	10.4	10.2	5.4	9.4	9.8	9.8	5.3	10.4	10.3	10.2
Flour	do	3.7	6.9	7.1	7.0	3.2	5.6	5.8	5.8	3.8	7.1	7.2	7.3
Corn meal	do	2.5	4.7	4.0	4.0	2.4	4.3	3.9	3.9	2.2	4.5	4.1	4.2
Rolled oats	do	-----	9.8	9.5	9.7	-----	9.0	8.5	8.4	-----	9.9	10.1	10.1
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	-----	11.3	11.3	11.3	-----	10.4	10.2	10.2	-----	12.2	12.2	12.1
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	-----	25.5	26.2	26.2	-----	22.9	24.4	24.4	-----	25.5	26.6	26.6
Macaroni	Pound	-----	22.0	21.6	21.6	-----	19.2	19.0	19.0	-----	19.3	18.9	18.9
Rice	do	8.6	10.6	11.3	11.3	9.0	10.4	10.8	10.8	8.2	11.1	12.2	12.1
Beans, navy	do	-----	12.6	10.7	10.5	-----	9.4	8.1	7.9	-----	12.2	11.5	11.1
Potatoes	do	2.0	3.2	7.6	7.5	1.9	3.1	6.7	6.9	1.9	3.7	7.4	7.7
Onions	do	-----	9.5	7.9	8.5	-----	9.6	6.1	7.9	-----	9.3	8.1	8.7
Cabbage	do	-----	5.3	7.8	6.2	-----	6.6	8.2	6.6	-----	5.6	8.1	6.8
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	-----	12.1	11.6	11.7	-----	11.6	10.6	10.6	-----	12.8	12.8	12.5
Corn, canned	do	-----	17.7	17.7	17.7	-----	17.3	15.7	15.5	-----	19.0	18.0	18.0
Peas, canned	do	-----	19.1	19.1	19.2	-----	17.0	15.8	15.7	-----	22.5	21.8	21.9
Tomatoes, canned	do	-----	13.9	11.4	11.3	-----	12.5	9.9	9.9	-----	13.0	11.2	11.0
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.3	7.7	7.1	7.2	4.5	6.7	6.0	6.0	5.2	7.7	7.1	7.2
Tea	do	60.0	98.8	103.7	103.7	56.0	76.4	74.6	74.6	61.3	91.8	94.4	95.5
Coffee	do	32.0	51.0	50.7	50.7	25.2	49.6	47.7	47.7	28.8	54.0	54.4	54.3
Prunes	do	-----	17.5	18.1	18.7	-----	16.7	14.5	14.5	-----	19.6	19.4	19.0
Raisins	do	-----	15.7	14.9	17.6	-----	13.2	13.5	13.4	-----	15.7	15.2	15.0
Bananas	Dozen	-----	29.2	27.7	30.0	-----	29.2	25.8	25.8	-----	39.4	38.9	37.2
Oranges	do	-----	51.5	47.0	48.8	-----	56.3	51.6	55.0	-----	55.9	49.1	52.7

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "rump" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

51 Cities on Specified Dates

May 15, 1913 and 1925, and for April 15 and May 15, 1926. For
ception of May, 1913, as these cities were not scheduled by the bureau

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES

particularly meats and vegetables, owing to differences in trade practices]

Boston, Mass.				Bridgeport, Conn.			Buffalo, N. Y.				Butte, Mont.			Charleston, S. C.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
1913	1925						1913	1925						1913	1925		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
[1] 37.0	[1] 61.6	[1] 65.0	[1] 65.0	47.5	48.2	48.5	22.3	39.0	39.7	40.8	32.0	31.2	31.8	21.8	34.1	34.5	33.4
34.0	49.9	50.9	51.4	39.9	41.6	41.5	19.3	33.7	33.3	34.2	27.7	26.7	27.3	20.5	31.4	31.2	30.9
24.4	38.3	38.5	39.0	35.9	36.9	36.9	17.5	29.5	29.8	30.1	27.6	26.9	27.9	20.8	29.5	27.2	27.5
17.0	26.0	27.1	27.3	26.3	27.5	27.0	15.3	22.3	22.9	22.9	19.1	18.9	19.0	15.0	20.7	21.2	20.4
-----	17.3	18.4	18.6	11.0	11.8	11.4	11.8	13.0	14.4	14.3	12.7	12.6	12.9	12.0	14.7	15.4	14.9
23.4	37.6	40.8	43.6	38.2	39.9	42.5	19.8	38.5	41.9	42.5	34.0	37.9	37.4	22.3	34.1	35.2	37.3
25.4	45.0	46.8	47.0	51.1	52.1	52.9	22.0	42.0	44.7	45.4	56.7	55.7	57.1	25.5	42.9	43.2	43.7
31.8	57.2	58.6	60.3	59.0	57.4	59.9	25.7	50.4	53.4	55.4	57.9	58.3	59.6	26.7	49.7	50.3	51.9
23.5	39.5	38.9	42.3	39.6	37.6	40.6	18.7	34.9	34.2	36.4	40.1	40.5	40.3	21.3	41.9	42.5	42.5
25.6	41.4	43.9	45.2	41.9	44.3	45.0	22.5	40.1	41.9	41.7	37.4	40.0	39.8	21.4	37.5	40.8	42.3
-----	30.5	37.9	37.9	29.8	33.7	34.2	-----	29.0	37.8	37.7	28.8	33.6	32.5	-----	30.5	39.1	39.2
8.9	13.3	14.9	14.9	15.0	16.0	16.0	8.0	13.2	13.0	13.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	11.7	18.0	18.0	18.0
-----	11.5	12.2	12.3	11.1	11.6	11.4	-----	11.0	11.3	11.3	10.5	11.1	11.2	-----	11.2	11.9	12.0
36.0	54.5	52.1	50.2	53.5	51.3	50.1	34.1	52.9	51.2	49.4	46.0	49.1	48.3	36.2	52.9	52.1	49.4
-----	30.3	30.7	29.7	29.1	29.4	29.5	-----	29.1	30.0	28.8	32.4	-----	-----	-----	30.9	31.5	31.7
22.1	37.9	39.0	37.4	38.7	39.8	39.4	19.0	37.3	38.1	37.5	35.8	37.1	37.1	20.3	33.0	33.6	31.7
16.0	22.6	21.5	21.0	22.3	20.7	20.9	14.3	21.8	20.4	20.2	26.2	24.6	24.6	15.0	23.4	23.6	22.9
-----	26.0	25.4	25.1	25.2	25.6	25.6	-----	26.1	26.3	25.8	28.2	29.8	29.6	-----	24.5	23.9	23.9
32.1	52.5	50.5	52.0	48.7	46.8	48.6	25.4	40.1	41.4	41.3	44.2	42.0	42.2	25.4	39.5	42.0	39.6
5.9	9.0	9.1	9.1	8.9	9.0	9.0	5.6	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.8	9.8	9.8	6.0	10.8	10.8	10.6
3.7	6.5	6.7	6.6	5.9	6.3	6.2	3.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	6.3	5.9	5.9	3.7	7.3	7.4	7.3
3.6	6.5	6.5	6.5	7.8	7.8	7.7	2.5	5.5	5.4	5.5	6.4	5.9	6.0	2.3	4.1	4.0	3.9
-----	9.6	9.4	9.4	8.8	8.8	8.6	-----	9.1	8.7	8.8	7.7	7.4	7.4	-----	9.3	9.4	9.4
-----	11.3	10.9	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.5	-----	10.4	10.4	10.4	12.2	12.2	12.3	-----	12.0	11.7	11.8
-----	24.5	25.0	24.9	23.7	24.6	24.6	-----	23.8	24.5	24.6	26.9	29.0	28.8	-----	25.0	25.9	26.0
-----	23.3	23.0	22.9	22.9	22.7	22.7	-----	22.2	21.5	21.8	19.7	18.9	18.9	-----	19.2	19.0	18.9
9.2	11.8	12.7	12.7	11.0	11.7	11.9	9.3	10.9	11.5	11.4	11.6	12.2	12.2	5.5	8.7	9.6	9.5
-----	10.9	10.3	10.0	10.6	9.8	9.9	-----	10.2	9.5	9.1	11.1	10.5	10.6	-----	10.8	10.5	10.0
1.8	2.1	7.7	5.5	2.0	7.2	6.2	1.4	1.4	6.9	6.2	2.5	5.0	4.6	2.0	2.4	7.9	7.2
-----	9.2	6.9	7.7	8.3	6.5	8.9	-----	8.9	7.8	8.7	7.7	4.8	5.6	-----	7.8	7.0	8.4
-----	7.1	8.8	7.4	5.6	8.6	8.0	-----	5.6	8.0	6.8	6.9	8.6	7.8	-----	3.5	6.1	4.6
-----	14.1	13.9	13.4	11.9	11.5	11.3	-----	10.3	10.0	10.3	14.7	14.9	14.6	-----	10.5	10.0	10.0
-----	20.4	19.3	19.0	20.7	19.5	19.3	-----	17.7	15.9	15.6	16.9	15.7	15.8	-----	17.5	15.6	15.0
-----	21.7	20.9	20.6	21.6	21.3	21.1	-----	17.2	16.3	15.9	16.9	15.2	14.5	-----	18.9	17.6	17.9
-----	13.6	12.6	12.1	14.6	12.9	13.2	-----	15.2	13.7	13.6	14.1	13.3	12.8	-----	11.9	10.1	10.1
5.2	7.1	6.4	6.7	6.7	6.3	6.4	5.3	6.9	6.2	6.3	8.7	7.9	7.9	5.0	6.8	6.2	6.2
58.6	75.1	74.3	75.3	60.9	59.9	60.3	45.0	67.7	71.9	71.9	81.7	83.5	83.5	50.0	72.6	76.7	76.7
33.0	56.0	55.6	55.4	48.2	48.4	48.3	29.3	48.7	49.2	48.7	55.5	56.9	57.0	26.0	45.8	46.1	46.8
-----	16.8	16.8	16.5	17.8	16.2	16.0	-----	16.8	16.1	16.4	17.1	17.5	17.3	-----	16.5	15.7	15.5
-----	13.8	14.2	14.1	14.0	14.0	13.9	-----	13.8	14.1	14.2	15.4	15.6	15.9	-----	14.2	14.1	14.2
-----	47.8	45.6	46.3	36.4	35.0	36.1	-----	45.8	42.9	41.8	[2] 16.2	[2] 15.3	[2] 14.8	-----	37.9	38.8	37.9
-----	68.4	60.0	56.8	57.9	57.7	55.2	-----	56.1	55.0	56.8	55.7	49.0	49.1	-----	48.5	48.5	49.4

[2] Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Chicago, Ill.				Cincinnati, Ohio				Cleveland, Ohio			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
		1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	22.6	43.6	43.8	43.4	23.9	37.9	37.2	38.1	25.2	38.4	37.6	39.2
Round steak	do	19.1	33.2	35.6	35.7	21.0	34.2	33.3	33.5	22.0	32.7	31.6	33.1
Rib roast	do	19.1	33.3	33.7	34.2	19.3	30.1	29.7	29.7	20.0	27.1	27.5	28.0
Chuck roast	do	15.2	22.6	24.9	24.9	15.6	20.8	21.3	21.5	17.2	22.3	22.6	23.3
Plate beef	do	11.3	13.8	14.6	14.8	12.4	16.7	15.6	15.5	12.1	12.8	13.8	13.7
Pork chops	do	18.0	34.7	36.9	38.9	19.5	36.5	35.8	38.8	21.0	38.3	39.3	42.6
Bacon, sliced	do	31.4	50.1	52.3	53.7	25.7	41.3	44.6	44.6	27.1	47.4	49.7	50.6
Ham, sliced	do	32.5	53.0	54.1	55.0	28.5	53.3	53.1	55.8	36.0	56.5	57.3	59.3
Lamb, leg of	do	20.3	36.7	37.6	40.2	16.8	39.4	36.6	39.1	21.0	36.3	36.3	39.2
Hens	do	21.2	37.8	41.9	41.6	24.6	41.7	43.0	43.3	22.9	40.5	44.3	43.7
Salmon, canned	do	-----	32.9	38.6	39.6	-----	29.5	37.4	37.0	-----	31.0	38.6	39.1
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	8.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	8.0	14.0	13.7	13.7
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	-----	10.7	10.9	10.9	-----	10.7	10.8	10.8	-----	10.8	11.2	11.2
Butter	Pound	32.5	49.4	47.3	47.2	35.9	50.8	49.6	49.1	36.8	53.2	51.1	51.9
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	-----	27.2	27.7	26.7	-----	30.5	30.1	29.6	-----	31.7	32.0	31.7
Cheese	do	25.3	40.1	41.1	41.4	21.0	36.1	35.9	35.0	23.0	35.9	38.7	37.3
Lard	do	14.7	22.1	21.1	20.8	14.1	21.0	19.0	19.4	16.5	24.1	22.5	22.5
Vegetable lard substitute	do	-----	26.3	26.3	26.3	-----	26.0	25.3	25.4	-----	27.0	27.2	27.1
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	23.7	40.5	41.7	41.5	22.0	35.6	34.0	35.0	25.6	40.4	39.9	39.8
Bread	Pound	6.1	9.9	9.8	9.8	4.8	9.3	9.1	9.1	5.5	8.0	8.0	8.0
Flour	do	2.8	5.4	5.6	5.5	3.3	5.9	6.3	6.3	3.2	5.9	6.1	6.1
Corn meal	do	2.9	6.2	6.1	6.0	2.6	4.7	4.1	4.1	2.7	5.9	5.3	5.2
Rolled oats	do	-----	8.7	8.4	8.3	-----	8.9	8.6	8.6	-----	9.4	9.4	9.4
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	-----	10.1	10.0	9.9	-----	10.2	10.3	10.3	-----	11.2	11.1	11.3
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	-----	24.2	24.5	24.4	-----	23.7	24.7	24.7	-----	24.7	25.3	25.3
Macaroni	Pound	-----	20.0	19.0	19.1	-----	19.7	18.3	18.3	-----	21.6	21.9	21.9
Rice	do	8.7	11.4	11.7	11.9	8.8	10.8	11.1	11.5	8.5	11.1	12.0	12.1
Beans, navy	do	-----	9.9	9.4	9.1	-----	8.6	7.9	7.6	-----	9.7	7.8	7.7
Potatoes	do	1.3	2.3	6.3	5.7	1.6	2.4	6.4	6.5	1.5	2.6	7.6	6.4
Onions	do	-----	8.6	6.2	7.9	-----	9.2	6.0	7.6	-----	9.0	6.5	8.3
Cabbage	do	-----	5.6	7.4	6.3	-----	5.3	6.9	5.9	-----	4.9	7.2	6.0
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	-----	12.7	12.7	12.7	-----	11.6	11.0	10.9	-----	13.3	12.7	12.8
Corn, canned	do	-----	18.3	16.8	17.1	-----	16.7	15.7	15.6	-----	18.8	17.3	17.3
Peas, canned	do	-----	17.9	17.2	16.8	-----	18.1	17.3	17.2	-----	18.0	17.7	17.8
Tomatoes, canned	do	-----	15.0	13.8	13.7	-----	13.9	12.0	11.8	-----	14.5	13.4	13.3
Sugar, granulated	Pound	4.9	6.9	6.4	6.4	5.0	7.2	6.7	6.8	5.1	7.4	6.7	6.9
Tea	do	53.3	74.1	72.3	72.3	60.0	75.0	78.6	78.0	50.0	79.1	81.6	81.0
Coffee	do	30.7	51.5	51.6	51.7	25.6	46.0	46.4	46.5	26.5	52.8	54.1	54.1
Prunes	do	-----	18.1	18.7	18.1	-----	17.6	17.6	17.7	-----	19.1	17.4	17.4
Raisins	do	-----	15.6	15.4	15.3	-----	14.4	15.0	14.7	-----	14.5	14.6	14.6
Bananas	Dozen	-----	40.5	41.9	41.4	-----	39.5	36.5	38.8	-----	54.0	50.0	50.0
Oranges	do	-----	60.9	58.1	56.8	-----	54.8	52.0	54.9	-----	59.9	57.9	53.1

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "rump" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Columbus, Ohio			Dallas, Tex.				Denver, Colo.				Detroit, Mich.				Fall River, Mass.			
May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
39.9	37.8	38.6	22.5	34.9	36.2	36.8	23.9	34.2	32.6	33.8	23.8	41.3	40.4	41.5	[1]34.5	[1]59.8	[1]59.4	[1]61.0
33.8	33.1	34.2	20.3	31.8	32.5	32.3	21.8	29.8	28.6	29.6	19.4	33.6	34.0	34.8	27.0	43.5	44.1	46.1
29.9	30.1	30.5	19.2	28.4	27.7	28.6	17.8	23.8	24.2	24.4	19.2	29.2	30.0	30.8	23.8	28.9	31.3	31.9
24.0	23.3	24.4	16.3	21.9	22.8	21.9	15.8	19.7	19.0	19.5	15.0	22.4	22.7	22.6	18.5	22.5	22.5	23.2
15.8	15.4	15.6	12.9	15.9	16.8	17.0	9.4	11.1	11.9	11.6	11.5	13.2	14.1	14.3	-----	13.0	13.1	12.9
33.9	35.6	37.3	20.8	35.6	36.2	37.9	20.3	33.5	36.4	39.1	19.2	38.3	40.6	42.4	22.5	35.0	38.0	39.5
48.7	48.3	49.1	38.0	46.4	45.8	43.6	28.0	49.0	50.2	49.1	23.5	47.2	51.1	52.0	25.8	44.2	44.5	45.7
55.6	54.1	55.4	31.3	56.9	57.5	59.3	30.0	55.7	54.3	55.9	25.0	56.3	59.2	60.9	31.3	51.3	53.6	54.2
41.4	43.7	45.0	22.0	42.3	44.9	42.0	17.9	35.8	35.3	36.8	17.8	39.3	39.1	41.6	20.5	41.6	41.6	42.5
38.2	40.7	41.9	19.1	30.9	33.4	33.8	21.6	32.3	35.7	36.0	22.4	40.4	43.2	43.8	25.8	42.8	42.9	46.3
32.7	39.8	40.3	-----	33.1	42.1	42.1	-----	33.7	38.4	38.4	-----	32.0	39.8	39.8	-----	31.8	38.9	39.3
11.0	11.0	11.0	10.0	15.0	12.3	12.3	8.4	10.5	12.0	12.0	8.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	9.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
11.2	11.4	11.3	-----	13.3	13.3	13.2	-----	10.6	11.2	11.0	-----	10.8	11.1	11.1	-----	12.7	12.6	12.6
50.4	48.0	48.0	36.0	52.2	51.6	48.9	34.3	47.3	46.4	45.4	34.7	52.3	51.1	51.3	36.4	51.9	51.7	49.7
29.4	29.8	29.2	-----	33.7	34.1	33.8	-----	29.5	29.2	29.2	-----	29.2	29.5	29.0	-----	31.6	30.4	30.4
36.2	36.9	35.3	20.0	37.1	34.7	34.3	26.1	39.1	38.2	37.6	20.3	37.5	37.5	37.4	23.8	38.2	39.1	37.7
20.5	18.7	18.7	17.0	24.2	26.0	25.0	16.3	24.2	21.7	22.5	16.1	23.6	22.0	22.2	15.0	21.9	20.1	20.4
25.8	25.9	25.8	-----	24.8	24.4	24.2	-----	24.7	23.7	23.8	-----	26.9	27.3	27.3	-----	27.3	27.1	27.0
32.8	32.8	33.5	21.0	35.0	34.0	33.4	23.6	35.5	35.0	35.0	25.0	40.1	39.6	39.0	30.3	50.1	46.1	49.0
8.1	8.1	8.1	5.5	8.5	8.5	9.5	5.4	8.3	8.4	8.4	5.6	8.7	8.4	8.4	6.2	9.1	9.2	9.3
6.2	6.1	6.1	3.3	5.8	6.1	6.0	2.6	5.0	5.1	5.1	3.1	5.9	6.0	6.0	3.3	6.1	6.5	6.4
4.5	3.7	3.8	2.7	5.0	4.4	4.5	2.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	2.8	6.1	5.8	5.8	3.4	7.7	7.2	6.9
9.4	9.4	9.3	-----	10.7	10.6	10.0	-----	9.2	8.9	8.8	-----	9.7	9.4	9.4	-----	9.7	9.8	9.5
11.0	11.0	11.0	-----	11.3	11.1	11.0	-----	11.9	11.8	11.7	-----	10.6	10.7	10.6	-----	11.2	11.6	11.6
23.8	24.8	25.0	-----	26.6	27.5	27.4	-----	24.5	25.7	26.0	-----	24.9	25.8	25.9	-----	26.2	25.8	25.5
23.2	22.0	22.0	-----	21.5	21.3	21.1	-----	18.9	18.8	20.5	-----	21.9	21.8	21.9	-----	24.6	24.5	24.8
12.1	13.8	13.9	9.3	13.2	12.9	12.9	8.6	11.3	12.0	11.7	8.4	11.2	12.2	12.1	10.0	10.8	12.2	12.4
9.1	7.9	7.7	-----	12.8	10.7	10.1	-----	11.0	10.2	10.2	-----	9.2	8.2	8.3	-----	10.5	10.2	9.9
2.1	6.6	6.1	1.8	5.0	6.9	7.0	1.2	2.8	5.9	5.2	1.3	1.7	6.2	5.2	1.8	1.8	7.3	6.1
9.3	6.8	8.5	-----	8.2	7.8	8.1	-----	8.8	5.6	7.2	-----	9.5	6.2	7.6	-----	9.6	6.2	8.3
6.1	7.5	7.0	-----	5.5	5.7	5.4	-----	5.9	6.5	5.2	-----	5.8	7.4	6.3	-----	6.5	8.8	7.9
13.7	12.6	12.5	-----	14.9	14.0	13.9	-----	13.7	12.4	12.2	-----	11.4	11.7	11.5	-----	12.3	12.1	12.3
17.3	15.7	15.7	-----	20.5	18.0	18.0	-----	18.5	15.6	15.6	-----	18.9	15.9	15.9	-----	17.6	17.1	17.2
16.5	15.4	15.4	-----	20.8	21.7	21.6	-----	17.4	15.9	15.9	-----	17.6	16.8	16.5	-----	19.0	18.7	19.0
14.6	13.2	12.3	-----	14.5	11.7	11.6	-----	14.5	13.3	13.1	-----	13.7	12.0	11.9	-----	13.6	12.6	12.7
7.7	6.7	7.0	5.7	8.2	7.5	7.4	5.3	8.1	7.3	7.5	4.9	7.3	6.9	6.9	5.3	7.4	6.7	6.8
89.1	89.3	89.3	66.7	102.7	106.6	106.6	52.8	66.4	66.9	67.1	43.3	73.5	73.3	73.3	44.2	59.7	60.3	59.6
52.3	51.6	51.6	36.7	60.2	60.2	59.9	29.4	51.7	52.7	51.9	29.3	52.0	51.9	51.9	33.0	53.5	53.7	52.4
18.6	18.0	18.0	-----	21.0	21.1	20.9	-----	18.4	18.3	18.1	-----	18.8	18.0	18.0	-----	15.2	15.8	15.6
14.8	15.0	15.0	-----	16.9	16.8	16.6	-----	14.6	14.9	14.8	-----	15.0	15.0	15.2	-----	14.5	14.2	14.3
39.5	36.7	37.8	-----	32.0	31.7	35.0	-----	[2]13.8	[2]12.5	[2]12.0	-----	38.6	33.8	35.3	-----	[2]11.8	[2]9.8	[2]9.6
51.0	50.3	54.4	-----	57.6	55.3	56.6	-----	49.8	49.6	47.5	-----	58.7	52.4	54.7	-----	61.3	55.2	55.3

[1] Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Houston, Tex.			Indianapolis, Ind.				Jacksonville, Fla.			
		May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
					1913	1925			1913	1925		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	30.7	33.2	33.2	24.7	38.3	37.4	38.6	26.0	35.7	38.0	37.4
Round steak	do	29.6	31.9	31.9	23.3	36.4	36.1	37.4	22.0	30.9	32.8	32.8
Rib roast	do	23.9	26.3	26.3	17.9	28.8	29.1	29.8	23.3	25.9	29.4	27.9
Chuck roast	do	19.0	20.0	20.2	16.1	24.2	24.9	24.6	14.0	19.1	21.2	20.8
Plate beef	do	16.1	18.2	17.5	12.1	15.1	15.1	15.4	10.3	11.8	13.6	13.2
Pork chops	do	32.7	36.3	37.5	21.7	35.7	36.0	39.5	21.3	32.5	36.7	39.2
Bacon, sliced	do	48.1	49.3	49.4	29.0	43.3	45.6	46.0	26.3	42.0	47.3	47.3
Ham, sliced	do	52.0	50.8	52.1	30.3	53.8	56.4	57.5	28.3	52.1	52.8	53.3
Lamb, leg of	do	35.0	36.0	37.0	20.7	40.7	40.0	41.4	19.3	35.5	37.0	40.3
Hens	do	35.6	39.5	39.2	22.0	37.0	41.0	41.8	22.0	34.8	41.2	40.6
Salmon, canned	do	31.2	36.5	37.1	.....	32.2	36.1	36.1	.....	30.8	38.2	38.7
Milk, fresh	Quart	16.0	16.0	15.8	8.0	11.0	12.0	12.0	12.5	18.8	22.0	22.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	11.8	11.6	11.5	.....	10.4	10.8	10.7	.....	11.9	12.2	11.9
Butter	Pound	52.6	47.8	46.9	34.7	50.5	49.4	48.4	39.2	54.4	55.0	52.7
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	31.5	31.6	31.2	.....	29.4	30.4	30.0	.....	30.4	31.5	31.5
Cheese	do	33.9	31.4	30.9	20.8	37.1	36.1	35.8	22.5	34.1	33.7	31.9
Lard	do	22.7	22.5	22.2	15.2	21.0	19.0	19.2	15.5	23.2	23.1	23.1
Vegetable lard substitute	do	18.9	18.5	19.4	.....	26.5	26.1	26.7	.....	23.9	24.5	24.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	33.5	33.2	32.8	21.8	33.8	33.2	34.1	28.8	36.4	41.0	39.1
Bread	Pound	8.9	9.0	9.0	5.1	8.1	8.0	8.0	6.5	11.2	11.0	11.0
Flour	do	6.2	6.0	6.0	3.2	5.8	6.0	5.9	3.8	6.8	7.0	7.0
Corn meal	do	5.1	3.9	3.9	2.5	4.8	4.2	4.2	2.9	4.4	4.2	4.1
Rolled oats	do	9.5	9.1	8.9	.....	7.7	8.1	8.1	.....	9.9	9.7	9.3
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	11.9	11.8	11.7	.....	10.1	10.2	10.2	.....	11.3	11.4	11.3
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	24.9	25.8	26.0	.....	24.6	24.6	24.6	.....	24.5	24.7	24.9
Macaroni	Pound	19.2	18.0	18.3	.....	20.4	19.1	19.0	.....	20.8	20.0	19.7
Rice	do	9.6	10.3	10.3	9.2	11.1	11.7	11.7	6.6	10.4	11.0	11.2
Beans, navy	do	11.2	9.5	9.5	.....	9.1	7.7	7.9	.....	11.1	10.8	10.4
Potatoes	do	4.4	6.4	6.4	1.3	1.9	6.4	5.6	2.3	3.0	7.8	7.4
Onions	do	8.9	7.3	6.5	.....	8.3	6.2	8.6	.....	8.3	8.3	8.3
Cabbage	do	5.0	5.8	3.7	.....	5.5	7.4	5.5	.....	4.4	6.8	5.3
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	12.6	12.0	11.6	.....	11.7	10.4	10.1	.....	11.2	11.1	10.9
Corn, canned	do	18.5	16.2	15.7	.....	17.5	14.8	14.8	.....	20.8	19.7	19.9
Pears, canned	do	18.1	14.3	14.2	.....	16.6	14.6	14.8	.....	20.1	19.7	18.9
Tomatoes, canned	do	13.9	10.2	10.2	.....	14.4	11.7	11.1	.....	12.5	10.9	10.5
Sugar, granulated	Pound	7.2	6.7	6.7	5.6	7.4	7.0	7.0	5.9	7.4	7.1	7.0
Tea	do	77.3	81.6	80.8	60.0	80.5	85.3	87.0	60.0	96.2	96.6	98.4
Coffee	do	44.7	45.5	44.8	30.8	51.9	51.1	50.9	34.5	50.9	51.3	50.2
Prunes	do	17.0	16.7	16.0	.....	19.9	19.3	19.3	.....	17.8	19.2	18.8
Raisins	do	15.4	14.9	14.6	.....	15.5	16.3	15.9	.....	15.1	15.7	15.6
Bananas	Dozen	30.4	28.0	28.5	.....	31.5	30.9	30.9	.....	30.0	26.0	28.0
Oranges	do	47.7	47.1	42.5	.....	50.7	49.0	49.5	.....	48.9	46.1	48.8

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Kansas City, Mo.				Little Rock, Ark.				Los Angeles, Calif.				Louisville, Ky.				Manchester, N. H.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
24.7	39.6	38.2	38.9	26.3	33.4	34.3	34.4	24.0	37.0	36.0	36.9	23.2	34.3	34.0	35.4	[1] 35.8	[1] 57.3	[1] 56.6	[1] 56.6
21.6	34.0	32.1	33.9	20.0	29.4	31.3	31.4	20.8	30.5	30.0	30.3	19.6	30.7	29.6	31.7	28.8	45.9	45.3	45.5
18.4	26.4	26.5	26.7	19.4	25.0	26.6	27.7	19.1	28.9	29.0	29.9	17.6	25.4	25.4	27.3	20.7	28.3	28.3	28.2
14.9	19.9	19.9	19.9	16.3	19.8	20.0	21.6	15.5	19.8	19.4	19.5	14.9	19.1	18.6	19.2	16.8	22.7	22.9	23.5
12.0	12.4	13.3	13.6	13.5	15.2	15.7	16.1	12.4	14.1	14.2	14.5	12.4	14.4	15.6	16.1	----	15.8	16.0	16.7
19.2	33.3	37.2	38.7	21.3	31.9	34.6	37.3	25.4	42.1	44.8	45.4	19.6	33.7	34.8	38.8	20.5	35 9	37.3	39.2
28.8	48.7	50.0	51.0	37.0	46.9	49.3	50.0	33.8	52.5	55.9	58.3	27.8	44.5	46.1	49.4	23.5	42.1	41.9	42.8
27.8	54.9	55.4	56.1	31.3	50.0	52.1	52.9	35.0	64.3	66.0	66.8	28.6	47.0	49.1	52.3	28.5	44.9	45.6	47.4
18.7	35.5	33.8	34.9	20.2	42.9	41.4	40.7	19.2	36.2	36.1	35.8	17.5	38.8	39.0	41.0	20.7	38.3	36.6	38.9
18.7	32.8	36.3	35.8	20.0	29.2	32.8	33.2	25.8	42.9	45.2	45.9	24.1	38.4	40.0	39.6	24.7	43.1	44.3	44.7
----	34.6	38.1	38.9	----	31.5	41.7	41.7	----	28.5	36.2	36.5	----	28.8	38.1	38.4	----	30.7	38.5	38.4
8.7	13.0	13.0	13.0	10.0	15.3	15.0	15.0	10.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	8.8	12.0	12.0	12.0	8.0	12.3	14.0	14.0
----	11.8	11.8	11.7	----	11.9	12.3	12.3	----	9.9	9.7	9.9	----	11.7	11.5	11.5	----	12.8	13.0	12.8
35.3	50.3	48.8	47.6	39.6	52.1	52.6	50.9	35.0	50.8	50.7	50.4	38.6	52.7	52.0	49.1	38.3	56.1	53.1	51.3
----	27.3	27.8	27.7	----	30.5	31.1	30.3	----	30.8	31.4	31.0	----	30.7	32.3	33.2	----	27.8	28.0	26.0
21.7	37.0	36.2	35.1	21.7	37.3	36.9	35.1	19.5	38.1	39.1	38.9	21.7	35.9	37.5	36.6	22.0	36.8	36.4	36.1
16.2	22.4	21.0	21.1	15.6	23.7	23.8	23.5	17.9	23.7	22.9	23.2	15.4	21.2	20.5	21.2	16.0	21.9	20.6	20.8
----	27.2	27.0	26.8	----	23.5	23.8	23.7	----	25.4	26.1	26.3	----	28.8	28.5	28.5	----	25.9	26.2	25.2
21.4	34.5	35.8	35.9	23.0	33.9	34.6	34.8	27.5	41.7	37.8	39.8	21.7	34.3	32.9	34.0	28.3	44.5	43.6	44.7
6.0	9.6	10.1	10.0	6.0	8.7	9.5	9.5	6.2	9.3	8.6	8.6	5.7	9.3	9.4	9.4	6.1	8.4	8.5	8.7
3.0	5.9	6.0	6.0	3.6	6.6	6.8	6.9	3.6	5.9	5.7	5.6	3.6	6.8	6.7	6.9	3.4	6.1	6.4	6.4
2.5	5.7	5.1	5.0	2.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.2	5.7	5.3	5.3	2.3	4.4	3.8	3.7	3.6	5.6	5.1	5.3
----	9.5	9.2	9.2	----	10.4	10.8	10.8	----	9.8	9.6	9.6	----	8.7	8.3	8.5	----	9.0	9.0	8.8
----	12.2	12.2	12.2	----	12.1	12.2	12.1	----	10.2	10.0	10.0	----	10.7	10.8	11.0	----	11.4	11.4	11.0
----	25.0	27.1	27.1	----	24.7	25.0	25.3	----	23.7	24.8	24.9	----	24.2	24.3	24.3	----	24.6	25.5	25.6
----	21.6	20.5	20.3	----	21.6	20.5	19.7	----	17.6	17.6	17.6	----	18.7	19.2	19.5	----	24.4	24.2	24.1
8.7	10.6	11.1	11.1	8.3	10.3	10.6	10.7	7.7	11.1	11.3	11.4	8.1	10.8	11.3	11.3	8.5	10.6	11.4	11.2
----	10.1	9.3	9.2	----	10.4	9.7	9.5	----	10.4	9.4	9.3	----	9.5	7.9	7.7	----	9.7	9.1	9.0
1.4	2.3	6.1	5.2	1.8	3.5	6.6	6.8	1.1	4.6	6.2	5.7	1.7	2.4	6.5	7.0	1.5	1.7	6.8	4.9
----	8.8	6.9	8.0	----	9.5	7.9	7.9	----	8.5	6.4	6.4	----	8.9	6.3	8.1	----	8.7	5.7	7.0
----	6.5	5.8	5.4	----	4.5	6.1	5.3	----	4.2	4.9	4.7	----	5.3	7.7	6.0	----	7.1	8.4	7.5
----	13.7	13.3	13.3	----	12.2	11.3	11.3	----	11.5	11.5	11.5	----	11.5	10.9	10.9	----	14.3	14.1	14.3
----	17.4	14.7	14.3	----	20.6	16.9	16.5	----	17.6	16.1	16.2	----	19.2	16.5	16.6	----	18.6	17.4	17.5
----	17.0	15.5	15.1	----	19.1	18.2	17.5	----	18.7	17.2	17.2	----	17.9	16.1	15.6	----	20.5	19.2	19.1
----	14.5	11.8	12.2	----	13.6	11.4	11.4	----	[2] 15.7	[2] 15.6	[2] 15.6	----	12.8	10.0	9.8	----	14.3	12.5	11.5
5.5	7.7	7.1	7.3	5.5	8.0	7.2	7.4	5.3	6.7	6.4	6.4	5.1	7.4	7.0	7.0	5.1	7.3	6.7	7.0
54.0	82.1	82.5	82.7	50.0	99.9	100.6	105.1	54.5	75.0	74.9	76.8	62.5	76.2	79.9	79.9	46.3	61.2	63.1	63.9
27.8	53.3	53.3	53.5	30.8	53.5	55.1	55.5	36.3	51.8	54.6	54.3	27.5	51.5	50.0	49.5	32.0	52.4	51.5	51.8
----	17.8	17.3	17.7	----	18.9	18.2	18.5	----	16.4	16.4	16.2	----	16.6	16.7	16.9	----	16.4	16.1	16.2
----	15.5	15.3	15.5	----	16.6	15.8	15.8	----	11.9	12.9	13.2	----	14.7	15.5	15.7	----	14.3	14.3	14.4
----	[3] 11.4	[3] 11.1	[3] 10.9	----	[3] 10.0	[3] 9.0	[3] 9.0	----	10.5	9.6	10.1	----	36.7	38.8	36.3	----	[3] 10.1	[3] 9.8	[3] 8.6
----	54.2	51.2	51.7	----	48.9	48.0	49.9	----	49.0	46.8	46.1	----	47.8	46.8	47.7	----	55.9	51.8	50.2

[1] No. 2½ can.

[2] Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Memphis, Tenn.				Milwaukee, Wis.				Minneapolis, Minn.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
		1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	23.2	34.8	35.5	35.9	22.0	37.5	37.8	38.2	22.2	33.5	31.7	33.6
Round steak	do	19.3	30.9	32.7	33.6	20.5	33.1	33.4	33.7	20.0	29.5	28.4	30.4
Rib roast	do	21.1	25.7	25.8	26.9	18.5	27.6	28.1	28.3	19.9	25.1	24.6	25.3
Chuck roast	do	15.5	18.5	19.0	19.1	16.5	23.0	23.7	24.0	15.5	19.9	19.6	20.3
Plate beef	do	12.2	14.4	15.0	15.5	11.5	13.5	14.5	14.6	10.3	11.2	11.7	12.4
Pork chops	do	20.4	28.7	34.2	36.6	19.5	34.6	37.2	39.8	18.4	34.1	35.8	38.5
Bacon, sliced	do	30.0	41.4	43.5	43.3	26.8	46.4	47.5	48.2	25.0	49.2	49.4	49.9
Ham, sliced	do	29.3	50.0	50.8	53.3	27.3	49.0	50.3	51.7	27.5	51.3	52.4	53.4
Lamb, leg of	do	20.8	38.1	38.3	40.0	20.0	38.5	37.7	39.6	17.0	35.8	35.0	36.3
Hens	do	20.0	31.8	34.2	34.8	22.0	36.1	40.2	39.9	21.2	33.7	36.2	36.2
Salmon, canned	do	-----	32.3	33.3	33.3	-----	29.9	32.1	32.1	-----	33.3	39.3	39.5
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	15.3	15.0	15.0	7.0	10.0	11.0	11.0	7.0	11.0	11.0	11.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	-----	11.3	11.4	11.3	-----	10.9	11.2	11.2	-----	11.2	11.7	11.8
Butter	Pound	38.6	48.8	50.8	48.1	33.5	48.0	46.2	46.5	33.4	47.0	46.3	45.7
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	-----	28.5	27.7	27.7	-----	27.7	27.5	27.2	-----	27.8	28.8	28.2
Cheese	do	21.3	32.9	32.3	31.9	21.3	34.1	33.8	33.2	19.8	34.9	34.4	33.5
Lard	do	15.5	19.9	19.3	19.4	15.5	23.1	21.6	21.3	15.4	21.8	20.3	19.9
Vegetable lard substitute	do	-----	23.7	22.9	23.0	-----	26.9	26.7	26.5	-----	27.1	27.4	27.2
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	22.9	34.2	35.1	35.7	21.3	35.0	34.1	34.5	21.4	33.4	34.3	35.0
Bread	Pound	6.0	9.6	9.7	9.7	5.6	9.0	9.0	9.0	5.6	10.1	9.9	9.9
Flour	do	3.6	6.8	6.9	6.9	3.1	5.2	5.7	5.6	2.9	5.5	5.7	5.7
Corn meal	do	2.0	4.1	3.7	3.7	3.0	5.7	5.5	5.6	2.4	5.6	5.6	5.6
Rolled oats	do	-----	9.3	9.4	9.4	-----	8.8	8.6	8.5	-----	8.5	8.5	8.4
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	-----	11.2	11.1	11.1	-----	10.5	10.3	10.3	-----	10.9	10.7	10.6
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	-----	24.2	25.9	25.7	-----	23.7	24.5	24.5	-----	24.8	25.9	25.7
Macaroni	Pound	-----	19.5	19.5	19.5	-----	18.8	17.9	18.0	-----	18.5	19.3	19.3
Rice	do	7.5	9.9	10.8	10.8	9.0	11.0	11.7	11.8	9.1	11.2	11.9	11.9
Beans, navy	do	-----	9.8	9.5	9.4	-----	9.5	8.3	8.3	-----	9.6	9.2	9.1
Potatoes	do	1.6	3.3	7.1	7.0	1.1	1.8	5.9	5.0	1.1	1.6	5.8	4.9
Onions	do	-----	7.0	5.6	6.3	-----	9.0	6.4	8.3	-----	8.6	6.1	7.9
Cabbage	do	-----	4.1	6.0	4.8	-----	5.8	7.5	6.0	-----	5.2	6.9	5.4
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	-----	12.1	11.9	11.8	-----	11.4	11.1	10.9	-----	13.6	13.1	12.9
Corn, canned	do	-----	17.5	16.4	16.1	-----	18.0	16.1	15.5	-----	16.8	15.3	14.8
Peas, canned	do	-----	18.4	18.1	18.1	-----	17.0	16.6	16.2	-----	17.0	15.7	15.6
Tomatoes, canned	do	-----	12.4	11.0	10.8	-----	15.0	13.3	13.0	-----	15.0	14.3	14.2
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.2	7.2	6.8	6.9	5.3	6.9	6.3	6.4	5.5	7.3	6.8	6.8
Tea	do	63.8	95.4	96.9	96.7	50.0	71.2	71.4	71.2	45.0	62.7	63.2	62.8
Coffee	do	27.5	50.1	51.6	50.9	27.5	48.2	47.0	47.0	30.8	53.4	54.4	54.0
Prunes	do	-----	16.9	17.6	17.5	-----	17.3	17.2	17.2	-----	17.3	17.3	17.2
Raisins	do	-----	14.7	15.8	15.8	-----	14.6	14.8	14.8	-----	14.6	15.4	15.3
Bananas	Dozen	-----	34.0	36.3	32.5	-----	[3] 9.8	[3] 9.8	[3] 9.8	-----	[2] 12.2	[2] 11.0	[2] 10.7
Oranges	do	-----	55.6	52.1	52.1	-----	54.1	50.1	51.0	-----	54.6	51.4	50.9

[1] Whole.

[3] Per pound.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Mobile, Ala.			Newark, N. J.				New Haven, Conn.				New Orleans, La.				New York, N. Y.			
			May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
34.2	35.0	34.6	26.8	46.3	44.1	44.9	31.6	51.6	54.1	53.6	22.0	34.0	36.0	35.8	26.3	44.7	44.9	46.0
32.9	34.5	34.2	26.6	44.1	41.8	41.7	28.4	42.7	44.0	44.1	19.0	30.2	30.6	30.8	25.0	42.2	42.9	43.8
27.7	29.1	28.8	21.2	35.9	35.5	35.3	23.4	34.9	35.3	36.1	20.0	29.3	29.8	30.5	22.3	38.3	38.8	38.9
21.7	23.6	24.2	17.6	24.4	23.6	23.5	18.8	25.8	26.6	26.7	15.5	20.3	21.3	21.4	16.3	23.7	24.5	24.6
17.1	18.6	18.1	12.0	13.0	13.7	13.1	-----	13.3	15.7	15.8	11.1	16.2	17.4	16.9	14.5	19.4	20.5	20.2
37.9	40.5	40.8	22.6	36.6	37.8	39.5	23.0	35.5	37.8	39.6	22.5	33.9	37.8	39.8	21.8	39.2	40.9	42.8
42.7	47.2	46.9	24.4	43.5	45.1	46.1	28.2	46.2	49.9	50.2	29.8	43.8	46.8	47.5	25.3	45.8	50.8	51.1
49.6	51.2	51.2	20.3	52.3	53.8	54.8	32.4	57.5	57.9	59.6	26.0	50.7	52.3	52.9	29.0	57.4	59.1	61.2
40.0	41.4	42.1	20.8	39.6	36.8	40.2	19.3	39.9	37.4	40.4	20.1	38.4	37.9	39.6	17.6	37.6	36.1	38.5
34.6	39.6	39.0	23.4	40.1	41.7	41.9	23.8	41.4	43.9	45.6	21.1	37.8	39.2	39.7	22.2	39.5	42.0	43.4
29.7	40.7	41.0	-----	27.7	37.1	37.0	-----	29.9	34.7	34.7	-----	37.4	37.1	37.4	-----	29.5	36.4	36.4
17.8	18.5	18.5	9.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	9.0	15.0	16.0	16.0	10.0	12.3	14.0	14.0	9.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
11.5	11.7	11.7	-----	10.5	11.3	11.3	-----	11.6	12.1	12.1	-----	11.1	11.1	11.1	-----	10.7	11.2	11.1
55.6	55.6	53.2	36.6	54.1	49.5	50.8	35.8	52.6	52.4	50.6	35.0	52.2	51.6	49.7	35.4	52.4	49.5	50.3
30.6	31.1	31.6	-----	30.4	30.9	30.6	-----	31.3	31.8	31.3	-----	30.6	31.1	30.3	-----	29.4	30.7	29.9
35.6	36.7	35.3	24.5	38.3	39.8	40.2	22.0	37.7	39.1	39.2	22.0	35.4	33.7	33.9	19.4	37.4	38.4	38.3
23.1	21.6	21.5	15.8	22.5	22.2	21.3	15.7	22.4	21.8	21.4	14.9	21.5	21.1	20.9	15.7	23.1	21.9	22.0
21.1	22.2	21.7	-----	26.0	26.3	26.1	-----	25.2	26.0	25.6	-----	22.1	22.4	22.4	-----	26.1	25.7	25.9
34.8	37.5	35.3	32.8	47.8	46.8	48.3	31.3	48.6	46.4	47.1	23.6	37.5	35.3	37.1	30.8	49.2	48.3	49.1
9.7	9.6	9.6	5.6	9.1	9.3	9.4	6.0	8.3	9.1	9.1	5.2	8.9	8.9	8.9	6.0	9.6	9.7	9.7
6.8	6.7	6.7	3.6	5.9	6.1	6.1	3.2	6.0	6.3	6.2	3.8	7.4	7.6	7.5	3.2	6.1	6.2	6.2
4.5	3.8	3.9	3.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	3.2	6.7	6.8	6.8	2.6	4.5	3.8	3.9	3.4	6.8	6.5	6.5
8.9	8.7	8.6	-----	8.3	8.5	8.4	-----	9.5	9.6	9.4	-----	9.1	9.1	9.1	-----	8.8	8.6	8.6
11.2	11.2	11.3	-----	10.1	10.1	10.1	-----	11.1	10.7	10.6	-----	10.8	10.5	10.4	-----	10.0	10.0	10.0
24.1	24.9	25.5	-----	23.4	24.3	24.3	-----	24.1	24.9	24.9	-----	24.2	24.9	24.7	-----	23.0	23.9	24.0
19.9	20.9	21.1	-----	21.1	21.1	21.1	-----	23.0	22.8	22.8	-----	9.8	9.5	9.6	-----	20.9	21.1	20.8
10.1	11.6	11.2	9.0	10.4	11.5	11.3	9.3	11.6	11.9	12.1	7.4	9.9	10.5	10.1	8.0	10.5	10.7	10.8
10.2	9.3	8.9	-----	10.5	9.7	9.8	-----	10.1	9.8	9.5	-----	9.8	8.8	8.2	-----	11.3	10.3	10.4
2.9	7.2	7.2	2.4	3.0	7.4	7.4	1.8	2.0	7.5	5.9	1.9	3.2	6.8	6.2	2.5	2.9	7.5	7.2
6.9	5.5	7.6	-----	9.5	6.9	9.5	-----	8.8	7.0	8.5	-----	5.5	5.0	5.2	-----	8.7	7.0	8.5
3.6	5.1	3.9	-----	6.5	9.6	7.7	-----	6.2	8.7	7.4	-----	3.6	5.3	4.5	-----	5.8	8.6	7.6
11.6	11.0	10.9	-----	11.4	10.8	10.8	-----	11.8	11.4	11.5	-----	12.0	10.9	10.9	-----	11.3	11.2	11.0
17.5	16.8	17.5	-----	18.0	16.7	16.4	-----	18.8	18.1	18.3	-----	18.7	14.9	14.4	-----	16.9	15.3	15.3
17.3	16.2	16.2	-----	18.2	17.2	17.2	-----	20.4	19.5	19.5	-----	16.9	17.1	17.2	-----	17.1	15.7	15.6
12.7	11.2	10.9	-----	12.2	10.9	10.9	-----	13.6	12.3	12.3	-----	13.4	10.0	10.1	-----	13.0	10.7	10.6
7.4	6.7	6.7	5.1	6.9	6.0	6.2	5.2	7.2	6.5	6.5	5.1	6.4	5.9	6.0	4.8	6.2	5.8	6.0
80.8	83.0	81.5	53.8	61.5	63.5	63.5	55.0	58.6	59.5	59.7	62.1	83.2	82.9	82.2	43.3	63.9	64.9	65.0
49.8	50.6	50.3	29.3	48.7	50.2	49.9	33.8	53.3	53.4	53.5	26.7	37.4	36.8	36.3	27.5	46.0	48.1	47.7
16.6	16.4	17.3	-----	16.0	15.6	15.8	-----	17.0	16.4	16.3	-----	18.8	18.4	18.4	-----	15.6	15.8	16.0
15.4	14.6	14.5	-----	13.8	14.0	14.1	-----	14.1	14.3	14.0	-----	14.2	14.3	14.4	-----	14.2	14.5	14.5
26.4	25.2	25.2	-----	38.3	37.5	37.5	-----	35.7	35.0	34.6	-----	21.4	17.5	17.5	-----	41.2	39.6	39.3
46.4	51.0	54.7	-----	61.2	57.5	56.3	-----	61.6	52.7	57.0	-----	49.9	52.5	54.4	-----	68.5	63.4	63.8

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Norfolk, Va.			Omaha, Nebr.				Peoria, Ill.		
		May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
					1913	1925					
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	39.9	40.2	41.1	25.1	37.4	36.3	37.1	35.3	34.0	35.2
Round steak	do	32.9	34.1	34.7	22.0	34.9	33.3	34.0	32.1	33.1	33.3
Rib roast	do	30.9	32.3	32.6	18.1	25.8	26.2	26.1	24.3	24.2	24.5
Chuck roast	do	21.9	24.0	23.1	15.6	21.7	21.5	22.0	21.3	20.7	21.0
Plate beef	do	15.0	16.0	16.1	10.4	11.3	12.4	12.7	13.6	13.6	13.8
Pork chops	do	32.4	36.4	38.4	19.0	34.3	36.7	37.8	32.8	35.2	37.2
Bacon, sliced	do	40.4	44.8	46.1	28.0	51.4	52.1	52.4	48.5	49.3	51.1
Ham, sliced	do	42.3	48.1	48.1	29.0	56.1	56.6	57.1	52.8	52.7	53.8
Lamb, leg of	do	39.0	39.5	41.4	18.8	38.5	37.4	38.4	37.8	36.9	39.2
Hens	do	37.8	41.4	41.3	19.5	32.9	35.7	35.3	35.7	36.5	36.8
Salmon, canned	do	30.9	37.7	37.2	.....	33.9	38.8	39.2	32.8	38.4	39.1
Milk, fresh	Quart	17.0	17.5	17.5	7.9	11.6	11.1	10.3	12.0	11.3	11.3
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	10.8	11.1	11.3	.....	11.4	11.9	11.9	11.6	11.8	11.5
Butter	Pound	52.9	54.6	53.0	35.0	48.2	47.6	47.2	48.0	45.5	46.1
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	28.7	29.5	28.6	.....	30.0	30.4	30.3	29.9	29.7	29.5
Cheese	do	33.4	33.4	33.0	22.5	35.8	35.7	34.2	36.1	34.7	34.7
Lard	do	20.7	20.8	21.0	17.8	24.6	24.0	23.9	23.2	22.1	22.0
Vegetable lard substitute	do	22.4	22.1	22.0	.....	27.2	27.9	27.8	27.2	27.0	27.3
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	37.4	38.7	38.1	22.3	32.7	33.2	33.3	34.2	33.7	32.4
Bread	Pound	9.4	9.5	9.5	5.2	9.8	10.1	10.1	10.0	10.1	10.1
Flour	do	6.1	6.3	6.3	2.8	5.2	5.4	5.4	5.9	6.0	5.9
Corn meal	do	4.7	4.4	4.4	2.3	5.3	4.9	4.9	5.1	4.9	4.8
Rolled oats	do	9.0	8.4	8.3	.....	10.7	10.3	10.3	9.3	8.9	8.9
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	10.6	10.4	10.4	.....	11.9	12.5	12.5	12.1	11.8	11.8
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	23.8	23.9	24.0	.....	24.6	28.3	28.3	25.8	25.3	25.4
Macaroni	Pound	19.0	19.1	19.1	.....	21.2	21.1	21.0	20.9	20.6	20.2
Rice	do	11.8	12.1	12.0	8.5	10.2	11.6	11.8	10.9	11.7	12.0
Beans, navy	do	9.9	8.1	8.2	.....	10.4	9.9	9.7	9.7	8.7	8.4
Potatoes	do	2.6	7.0	6.6	1.3	2.4	6.2	5.6	2.1	5.9	5.3
Onions	do	7.7	6.7	7.3	.....	9.5	6.0	8.9	10.4	6.5	8.4
Cabbage	do	4.3	6.8	6.1	.....	5.4	7.2	5.7	6.1	7.4	6.4
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	10.1	9.8	10.0	.....	14.6	13.7	13.7	12.0	11.9	11.6
Corn, canned	do	18.0	15.3	15.3	.....	16.3	15.9	16.1	16.8	15.6	15.6
Peas, canned	do	21.6	19.8	20.1	.....	16.4	16.7	16.5	19.1	18.3	18.0
Tomatoes, canned	do	12.1	10.3	10.1	.....	15.1	14.3	14.1	15.4	13.8	13.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.4	6.0	6.2	5.7	7.9	7.1	7.1	8.2	7.3	7.4
Tea	do	93.6	88.8	88.8	56.0	76.5	80.3	80.3	66.2	65.1	66.4
Coffee	do	51.1	50.3	50.3	30.0	57.7	57.3	57.5	51.8	51.9	51.6
Prunes	do	16.8	16.1	16.7	.....	17.4	17.6	17.7	19.2	20.2	20.0
Raisins	do	13.9	13.9	14.0	.....	16.3	15.8	15.7	15.2	15.3	14.9
Bananas	Dozen	33.8	33.8	33.3	.....	[1] 11.9	[1] 11.4	[1] 11.4	[1] 11.8	[1] 9.9	[1] 9.9
Oranges	do	53.7	51.7	57.5	.....	50.4	47.8	44.2	49.5	48.8	47.1

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Philadelphia, Pa.				Pittsburgh, Pa.				Portland, Me.			Portland, Oreg.				Providence, R. I.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
1913	1925			1913	1925						1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
[1] 30.0	[1] 53.3	[1] 55.5	[1] 54.8	27.0	45.9	45.7	46.6	[1] 60.8	[1] 61.4	[1] 62.2	23.5	29.2	29.2	29.5	[1] 39.6	[1] 68.7	[1] 71.7	[1] 72.9
25.6	40.1	41.2	41.4	23.3	38.1	38.1	38.9	46.6	45.9	47.3	21.2	27.1	26.8	26.8	30.6	47.6	49.4	50.3
22.3	35.7	36.8	37.1	21.8	33.6	33.7	34.0	29.4	30.2	30.6	19.3	25.2	25.3	25.3	23.8	37.6	38.1	38.7
17.6	22.3	24.4	24.9	16.5	23.9	23.9	24.2	20.1	20.9	21.4	16.9	17.9	18.4	18.3	19.0	28.5	28.1	28.8
11.8	10.8	13.1	12.4	11.9	11.7	12.5	12.7	14.9	16.7	17.2	14.0	13.5	13.8	13.3	-----	18.7	19.3	18.4
20.8	39.7	41.8	45.1	22.0	38.5	41.1	43.1	37.2	38.6	41.6	21.1	35.3	38.2	38.8	21.8	40.3	41.9	43.5
25.6	42.9	46.7	47.8	28.8	48.7	52.7	53.9	43.9	44.9	44.8	30.0	50.0	53.4	54.2	22.4	45.8	44.5	44.6
30.8	58.0	57.9	60.1	29.4	57.8	60.5	62.0	53.7	55.3	56.9	30.0	52.8	54.4	56.1	31.0	58.0	57.2	58.8
21.4	40.2	39.4	42.2	21.2	41.0	39.8	41.7	37.0	35.1	41.8	19.1	35.9	36.9	37.4	20.3	42.4	39.6	44.0
23.0	41.0	43.5	44.6	27.3	44.3	46.0	45.3	41.2	41.9	42.1	22.0	35.1	37.5	37.7	24.4	42.8	44.9	45.8
-----	28.5	38.0	38.0	-----	28.9	37.4	37.5	29.4	39.1	39.1	-----	32.1	37.1	37.1	-----	30.5	38.0	37.6
8.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	8.6	14.0	14.0	13.0	13.0	13.5	13.5	9.3	11.7	12.5	12.2	9.0	13.5	14.7	14.7
-----	11.4	11.4	11.5	-----	11.1	11.5	11.6	12.2	12.4	12.4	-----	10.1	10.4	10.4	-----	11.5	12.2	12.2
40.3	55.5	53.6	53.3	37.2	53.2	51.9	51.3	56.2	54.2	51.6	35.5	48.8	48.7	47.4	36.6	51.5	52.0	51.1
-----	30.2	30.4	29.9	-----	30.8	30.8	30.5	29.6	29.4	29.4	-----	29.8	30.3	30.3	-----	29.3	29.7	29.7
25.0	38.1	40.3	39.8	24.5	38.4	39.0	38.2	37.2	38.4	37.9	20.5	36.7	38.7	37.1	21.3	35.1	36.3	36.3
15.3	22.0	21.1	21.1	15.5	21.8	20.6	20.9	23.3	20.2	20.1	18.2	24.3	24.2	23.8	15.2	22.3	20.7	20.6
-----	25.6	25.3	25.5	-----	26.2	26.6	26.6	25.9	24.9	24.4	-----	28.9	27.8	28.0	-----	27.0	26.8	26.7
26.1	40.3	41.6	41.8	24.1	41.5	39.2	40.4	42.6	42.4	43.3	25.0	36.3	30.6	32.8	30.5	49.5	46.3	47.2
4.8	9.4	9.4	9.4	5.4	9.2	9.3	9.3	10.4	10.1	10.1	5.6	9.6	9.4	9.4	5.9	9.2	9.2	9.2
3.1	5.7	6.1	6.1	3.1	5.8	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.1	2.9	5.8	5.2	5.2	3.4	6.4	6.6	6.5
2.7	5.1	4.7	4.7	2.7	5.7	5.9	5.9	5.5	5.2	5.0	3.3	5.9	5.3	5.2	2.9	5.3	5.1	5.1
-----	8.7	8.7	8.6	-----	9.3	9.4	9.2	7.8	8.1	8.1	-----	10.3	10.3	10.2	-----	9.4	9.3	9.2
-----	10.0	10.0	10.0	-----	10.5	10.6	10.5	11.4	11.6	11.6	-----	11.4	11.3	11.3	-----	10.8	11.0	10.8
-----	23.8	24.4	24.3	-----	25.2	25.1	25.3	25.2	25.9	25.8	-----	26.2	26.9	26.9	-----	24.2	24.9	24.8
-----	21.5	21.0	21.0	-----	23.3	22.8	22.7	24.2	25.2	25.4	-----	17.9	18.1	18.0	-----	23.8	23.5	23.5
9.8	12.0	12.2	12.2	9.2	11.4	12.2	12.2	11.8	13.0	12.8	8.6	10.7	11.1	11.0	9.3	11.1	11.8	11.9
-----	10.1	8.7	8.8	-----	9.6	8.4	8.0	10.4	9.9	9.4	-----	10.8	9.7	9.6	-----	10.3	9.6	9.2
2.3	3.6	7.4	7.0	1.6	2.9	6.5	5.9	1.6	7.4	5.2	0.5	3.3	4.7	4.4	1.7	1.8	7.4	5.1
-----	8.2	5.7	8.5	-----	9.0	7.1	8.6	8.1	6.1	7.8	-----	8.5	4.7	5.2	-----	8.7	6.2	7.9
-----	5.5	7.9	7.0	-----	5.8	7.9	6.5	5.0	8.9	7.4	-----	6.7	6.5	5.2	-----	6.0	8.6	6.9
-----	10.9	10.7	10.6	-----	12.8	12.8	12.9	15.2	15.4	15.2	-----	14.6	14.0	13.9	-----	11.7	11.1	11.2
-----	16.4	14.9	14.6	-----	17.3	17.1	17.2	18.1	16.1	16.2	-----	20.9	19.9	19.7	-----	18.5	17.8	17.8
-----	16.0	14.7	14.3	-----	18.2	18.0	17.6	19.9	18.3	18.3	-----	19.4	19.5	19.4	-----	19.7	19.5	19.5
-----	12.7	11.1	11.0	-----	13.9	11.8	11.9	[2] 22.7	[2] 20.6	[2] 20.0	-----	[3] 17.0	[3] 16.9	[3] 16.9	-----	15.1	13.5	13.3
4.9	6.3	6.0	6.2	5.5	7.2	6.8	6.8	7.1	6.4	6.6	6.1	7.6	6.8	7.0	5.0	6.9	6.2	6.5
54.0	70.3	71.3	71.9	58.0	79.1	85.2	85.7	63.5	60.9	60.3	55.0	76.0	76.8	76.6	48.3	61.5	61.1	61.5
25.0	45.9	45.6	44.6	30.0	51.3	50.9	50.9	54.4	54.1	53.4	35.0	52.2	52.4	52.3	30.0	53.7	54.1	54.2
-----	14.8	14.8	14.4	-----	19.8	18.5	18.9	16.2	15.7	15.6	-----	12.1	14.3	14.4	-----	17.5	16.4	16.5
-----	13.5	13.7	13.7	-----	14.3	14.4	14.6	13.4	13.6	13.8	-----	13.5	13.9	13.8	-----	14.3	14.2	14.2
-----	34.1	31.0	30.6	-----	42.6	38.1	38.3	[4] 11.6	[4] 10.3	[4] 10.6	-----	[4] 14.2	[4] 13.0	[4] 13.1	-----	35.0	32.6	34.3
-----	64.9	59.3	58.6	-----	59.3	53.6	54.2	58.2	56.3	59.9	-----	50.3	50.1	51.3	-----	64.3	59.7	61.2

[2] No. 3 can. [3] No. 2½ can. [4] Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Richmond, Va.				Rochester, N. Y.			St Louis, Mo.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
		1913	1925						1913	1925		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	21.8	39.4	39.3	39.5	40.5	41.2	41.9	23.3	37.7	36.3	36.8
Round steak	do	19.6	34.1	34.9	35.2	33.9	33.9	34.9	21.1	35.5	34.1	35.1
Rib roast	do	18.9	31.1	31.5	32.1	29.9	30.6	30.9	18.0	30.0	30.1	29.9
Chuck roast	do	15.3	22.8	23.3	23.9	23.6	24.1	24.5	13.7	21.0	20.5	20.7
Plate beef	do	12.4	15.3	16.3	16.3	12.5	13.7	13.2	11.0	13.4	13.9	13.7
Pork chops	do	20.8	36.2	38.7	40.6	39.1	40.4	42.7	19.5	31.6	35.8	37.5
Bacon, sliced	do	25.0	40.9	44.6	44.6	42.3	44.1	44.5	25.3	45.6	44.9	46.7
Ham, sliced	do	25.7	42.4	45.1	45.1	52.4	53.8	55.4	26.7	50.8	51.7	53.3
Lamb, leg of	do	19.7	45.3	45.6	45.8	38.8	38.5	41.1	19.0	39.6	36.4	38.8
Hens	do	21.0	37.8	42.2	41.2	41.8	44.8	45.4	18.5	36.1	38.8	39.5
Salmon, canned	do	----	32.7	36.8	35.7	30.8	37.5	38.3	----	32.7	39.9	38.9
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	12.5	12.5	12.5	8.0	13.0	13.0	13.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	----	12.5	12.6	12.7	11.6	11.6	11.6	----	10.1	10.5	10.4
Butter	Pound	39.0	57.3	58.1	56.1	53.2	51.0	49.0	33.3	52.5	51.7	50.8
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	----	31.1	31.9	31.9	30.0	30.9	30.6	----	27.1	28.5	28.3
Cheese	do	22.3	36.1	36.1	36.0	37.6	37.6	37.6	19.2	34.6	33.4	32.5
Lard	do	15.0	21.6	21.1	21.4	22.3	20.5	20.1	13.7	18.2	16.9	17.8
Vegetable lard substitute	do	----	26.1	25.9	25.9	24.9	23.7	24.1	----	25.9	25.9	26.1
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	24.0	37.1	37.8	37.1	37.5	38.1	37.4	20.0	36.1	35.0	35.5
Bread	Pound	5.3	9.4	9.5	9.5	8.9	8.9	8.9	5.5	9.5	9.8	9.8
Flour	do	3.3	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8	3.0	5.7	5.8	5.7
Corn meal	do	2.0	5.1	4.8	4.8	6.5	6.3	6.3	2.1	4.8	4.3	4.3
Rolled oats	do	----	9.3	9.0	9.0	9.5	9.1	9.2	----	8.9	8.7	8.8
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	----	10.9	11.1	11.2	10.6	10.3	10.3	----	10.2	10.3	10.1
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	----	25.5	25.4	25.4	24.3	25.2	25.0	----	23.6	24.3	24.3
Macaroni	Pound	----	20.6	20.4	20.4	22.5	22.5	22.3	----	21.7	20.9	20.8
Rice	do	9.8	12.6	13.2	13.3	11.2	11.3	10.8	8.3	10.2	11.1	11.1
Beans, navy	do	----	11.1	9.0	9.1	10.1	9.3	9.1	----	9.0	7.6	7.4
Potatoes	do	1.7	3.1	7.9	7.7	1.2	6.4	5.7	1.3	2.8	6.4	6.1
Onions	do	----	8.6	7.5	7.8	9.1	5.1	8.2	----	7.3	6.0	6.3
Cabbage	do	----	5.7	8.9	6.9	5.9	8.3	6.7	----	5.1	5.4	5.3
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	----	10.6	10.1	10.1	11.1	10.5	10.5	----	11.1	10.6	10.6
Corn, canned	do	----	16.1	15.3	15.3	17.6	16.4	16.6	----	17.0	16.0	16.0
Peas, canned	do	----	20.9	20.1	20.1	19.6	18.4	18.4	----	17.0	17.1	16.9
Tomatoes, canned	do	----	12.5	10.0	10.0	15.0	13.4	13.8	----	13.4	11.4	11.3
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.0	6.8	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.1	6.2	5.2	7.3	6.7	6.8
Tea	do	56.0	86.6	88.1	88.1	68.7	66.9	66.9	55.0	70.0	73.0	73.0
Coffee	do	26.8	49.5	49.6	49.6	50.4	48.5	48.1	24.3	48.8	47.9	47.9
Prunes	do	----	18.9	18.1	18.1	18.8	17.2	17.4	----	19.5	19.0	19.2
Raisins	do	----	13.7	14.4	14.4	13.9	14.1	14.2	----	14.5	14.7	14.7
Bananas	Dozen	----	37.7	36.4	36.8	41.9	37.7	38.2	----	34.2	32.1	33.5
Oranges	do	----	58.5	54.2	56.5	53.5	51.2	50.6	----	51.2	50.0	48.8

[1] No. 2½ can.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

St. Paul, Minn.			Salt Lake City, Utah				San Francisco, Calif.				Savannah, Ga.			Scranton, Pa.			
May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 11, 1926
			1913	1925			1913	1925						1913	1925		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
36.0	34.8	36.0	22.5	31.1	29.8	30.0	20.3	32.7	32.4	32.1	33.5	35.5	36.0	24.3	49.9	49.6	50.8
29.9	29.0	31.0	20.0	28.3	26.9	26.9	19.0	29.2	29.5	29.5	27.3	29.0	29.0	21.0	41.1	41.4	41.8
29.2	29.0	29.6	19.6	23.3	23.7	23.6	20.7	31.2	30.0	29.9	27.0	27.5	27.5	22.3	36.0	36.0	36.6
23.1	22.4	23.5	15.7	18.7	18.8	18.2	14.6	20.0	19.2	19.1	18.1	19.3	19.6	17.0	27.1	27.6	28.3
12.0	13.2	13.2	11.7	13.4	13.2	12.8	13.3	15.6	15.3	14.7	13.8	16.0	16.5	12.1	10.9	12.4	12.3
33.3	35.6	38.1	23.1	35.8	36.7	37.5	24.0	42.2	42.5	43.8	31.3	34.5	36.4	20.5	39.5	42.1	45.1
47.1	48.6	49.3	30.8	47.8	48.1	48.1	32.8	57.4	62.7	62.0	41.4	45.7	45.7	27.3	48.1	49.6	50.1
50.5	49.8	50.9	29.3	52.7	54.6	55.8	30.0	61.0	64.3	64.3	42.5	45.0	45.5	29.3	57.7	58.8	60.0
33.1	33.9	35.8	19.6	34.5	32.4	34.0	16.7	38.2	38.0	37.2	41.4	43.0	41.0	21.7	46.2	44.1	47.5
32.9	35.2	35.6	24.3	30.2	33.0	33.9	25.2	42.6	44.9	45.2	34.6	36.6	37.6	23.7	45.3	46.9	48.3
34.2	37.1	36.9	-----	33.8	35.9	34.4	-----	28.3	35.8	36.5	30.4	39.9	41.3	-----	31.8	36.1	36.0
11.0	11.0	11.0	8.7	11.5	10.0	10.0	10.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	17.5	17.0	17.0	8.6	12.0	12.0	12.0
11.8	12.0	12.1	-----	9.9	10.6	10.6	-----	10.0	10.1	10.1	10.8	11.3	11.3	-----	11.6	12.1	11.9
46.9	45.8	46.4	35.6	48.4	48.0	46.6	33.6	51.9	50.8	50.3	56.0	54.3	53.7	36.6	51.3	51.4	49.7
28.3	27.6	27.6	-----	30.1	29.8	29.3	-----	29.2	30.8	30.8	33.9	35.7	35.7	-----	-----	31.0	29.4
33.7	34.6	33.6	22.3	30.3	29.9	29.9	20.0	36.2	38.2	38.4	35.1	35.4	34.8	18.3	35.3	35.2	35.3
22.1	20.5	20.6	19.2	25.3	23.6	23.9	18.3	25.1	24.2	24.1	22.2	23.2	22.3	15.6	23.0	21.8	21.7
27.2	27.4	27.1	-----	29.5	29.4	29.4	-----	27.9	27.8	28.1	19.2	19.4	19.5	-----	26.2	26.1	26.2
34.2	34.3	33.8	23.8	36.6	30.1	30.7	24.5	39.3	35.3	36.4	37.8	38.8	38.7	25.0	40.3	41.7	41.3
10.2	10.2	10.2	5.9	10.8	10.0	9.8	5.9	9.9	9.8	9.8	10.2	10.4	10.6	5.6	10.2	10.4	10.4
5.8	5.8	5.8	2.6	5.3	4.7	4.7	3.3	6.5	6.1	6.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	3.5	6.5	6.5	6.5
5.7	5.4	5.3	3.3	5.7	5.1	5.2	3.4	5.9	6.3	6.3	4.1	3.5	3.5	-----	7.4	7.5	7.5
9.8	9.6	9.6	-----	8.9	8.9	8.9	-----	9.7	9.5	9.6	9.0	8.9	8.9	-----	10.0	10.0	10.0
12.0	12.1	12.1	-----	11.9	12.8	12.4	-----	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.3	10.3	10.3	-----	10.7	11.1	11.1
25.0	26.4	26.6	-----	24.9	25.4	25.4	-----	24.6	25.3	25.3	23.8	24.4	24.4	-----	26.5	25.7	25.8
18.7	18.9	18.7	-----	19.7	20.1	20.4	-----	14.2	14.6	14.9	18.0	18.1	18.1	-----	23.8	23.2	23.5
10.7	12.1	12.1	8.2	11.3	11.3	11.3	8.5	11.3	11.6	11.9	10.1	10.7	10.6	8.5	10.9	11.7	11.6
9.8	9.6	9.3	-----	10.9	9.7	9.6	-----	10.4	9.6	9.5	11.3	10.9	10.5	-----	12.7	11.7	11.3
1.4	5.8	5.3	1.1	3.0	4.7	4.0	1.4	4.1	5.9	5.9	2.6	7.1	7.5	1.5	2.2	6.9	6.4
8.9	6.0	7.1	-----	9.0	4.0	7.2	-----	7.6	4.9	4.7	8.4	7.8	8.0	-----	8.4	6.0	8.5
5.3	7.3	5.9	-----	5.8	7.0	6.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	4.0	6.6	4.8	-----	5.8	9.3	7.4
13.9	13.8	13.9	-----	15.0	14.4	14.3	-----	14.2	13.4	13.5	12.4	12.2	12.3	-----	12.1	11.3	11.0
16.2	15.3	15.3	-----	17.3	16.1	15.9	-----	18.8	18.4	18.5	19.3	16.1	16.1	-----	18.1	17.3	17.2
16.9	16.3	16.1	-----	16.6	16.4	16.2	-----	18.9	18.6	18.8	18.1	15.7	16.0	-----	19.1	18.1	17.9
14.8	14.0	14.2	-----	16.1	14.9	14.9	-----	[1] 16.0	[1] 15.4	[1] 15.4	11.8	9.9	9.7	-----	13.8	12.2	11.9
7.7	7.2	7.2	5.9	8.1	7.4	7.5	5.3	7.2	6.5	6.6	6.9	6.5	6.7	5.5	7.2	6.4	6.5
72.9	69.6	69.6	65.7	84.4	87.5	87.5	50.0	67.7	68.0	68.6	78.2	76.9	77.4	52.5	66.8	66.2	66.7
53.1	52.5	52.5	35.8	56.6	57.4	56.8	32.0	51.4	52.8	52.6	48.6	48.4	48.7	31.3	54.1	52.9	52.6
17.9	17.3	16.8	-----	16.1	16.4	15.7	-----	15.1	14.9	15.3	15.4	15.9	16.3	-----	17.5	18.3	18.1
14.9	15.3	15.8	-----	13.4	14.3	14.3	-----	13.0	12.6	12.7	13.7	13.8	14.6	-----	14.4	14.3	14.5
[2] 11.9	[2] 11.0	[2] 10.9	-----	[2] 16.2	[2] 15.0	[2] 15.2	-----	37.2	33.3	34.4	33.0	32.3	32.3	-----	35.6	33.3	33.0
55.3	54.9	51.9	-----	46.2	45.4	47.6	-----	50.2	49.6	49.8	52.4	49.3	49.9	-----	60.8	53.4	59.6

[2] Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Article	Unit	Seattle, Wash.				Springfield, Ill.			Washington, D. C.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15, 1925	Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1926	May 15, 1926
		1913	1925						1913	1925		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	23.8	34.0	33.4	33.8	35.3	34.9	35.4	27.5	44.9	45.5	46.6
Round steak	do	21.5	29.2	28.7	29.6	35.1	34.4	34.9	23.6	38.9	38.7	40.1
Rib roast	do	19.6	27.2	27.4	27.0	24.8	24.1	24.1	21.9	34.3	34.8	34.8
Chuck roast	do	16.8	18.8	19.2	19.6	21.0	21.8	22.3	17.6	23.2	24.3	24.4
Plate beef	do	12.9	14.5	14.9	15.0	13.1	13.7	13.9	12.1	12.9	13.7	13.5
Pork chops	do	24.6	38.7	40.7	41.0	33.0	34.7	37.2	21.1	40.1	41.8	43.9
Bacon, sliced	do	31.7	54.5	57.3	57.0	46.1	46.8	47.5	26.5	44.9	48.0	50.0
Ham, sliced	do	30.8	57.7	59.3	60.2	52.7	51.4	52.1	28.0	58.6	59.2	60.0
Lamb, leg of	do	20.8	35.8	36.3	38.1	38.8	38.1	40.5	20.9	43.5	40.7	44.6
Hens	do	24.5	34.7	35.8	36.7	36.1	37.4	36.8	22.4	40.3	44.2	45.1
Salmon, canned	do	-----	32.1	37.9	38.5	33.4	41.1	41.4	-----	28.4	38.1	37.9
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.5	12.0	12.7	12.7	12.5	12.5	12.5	8.0	14.0	15.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16 oz. can	-----	10.4	10.6	10.7	11.6	11.8	11.7	-----	11.6	11.8	11.9
Butter	Pound	35.0	49.0	50.5	49.7	50.0	48.6	48.8	38.7	55.1	53.7	53.4
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	-----	29.8	31.1	30.7	30.6	30.4	29.8	-----	29.6	31.3	31.3
Cheese	do	21.7	34.3	36.5	36.3	36.5	36.4	35.6	23.5	39.5	38.9	38.5
Lard	do	17.6	23.9	24.1	23.9	22.4	20.8	20.6	14.8	21.3	20.5	20.9
Vegetable lard substitute	do	-----	29.3	28.7	28.7	28.2	28.0	28.0	-----	24.9	25.1	25.1
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	25.0	36.8	34.5	35.3	35.3	33.5	33.1	23.9	38.8	39.5	39.9
Bread	Pound	5.5	10.3	9.7	9.7	10.3	10.1	10.1	5.6	8.2	8.1	8.1
Flour	do	3.0	6.0	5.2	5.1	6.2	6.2	6.2	3.7	6.4	6.6	6.6
Corn meal	do	3.0	5.6	5.0	4.9	5.6	5.1	5.1	2.4	5.4	5.2	5.2
Rolled oats	do	-----	9.1	9.0	9.0	10.3	9.8	10.0	-----	9.5	9.2	9.2
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	-----	12.1	11.8	11.9	11.9	11.9	11.9	-----	10.6	10.6	10.6
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	-----	26.5	27.2	27.3	26.2	27.1	26.9	-----	23.8	24.8	24.9
Macaroni	Pound	-----	18.3	18.3	18.3	20.1	19.1	19.1	-----	23.2	23.7	23.8
Rice	do	7.7	12.3	12.9	13.0	10.6	11.4	11.6	9.4	11.5	13.0	13.0
Beans, navy	do	-----	11.3	10.4	10.4	9.7	8.7	8.6	-----	9.7	8.8	8.6
Potatoes	do	1.0	3.5	5.2	4.8	2.3	6.6	5.8	2.1	3.6	7.9	7.5
Onions	do	-----	8.5	5.3	5.6	10.1	5.5	9.5	-----	9.0	6.4	7.8
Cabbage	do	-----	7.5	7.3	7.0	5.8	7.2	6.5	-----	5.8	7.8	5.9
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	-----	14.4	13.9	13.6	11.5	11.1	11.0	-----	10.9	10.5	10.7
Corn, canned	do	-----	19.8	18.9	19.0	18.3	15.7	15.7	-----	16.7	15.7	15.6
Peas, canned	do	-----	20.8	20.4	20.5	18.6	17.3	16.7	-----	16.9	16.8	16.7
Tomatoes, canned	do	-----	18.5	[1] 17.9	[1] 17.9	15.3	13.6	13.6	-----	12.2	10.4	10.2
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.9	7.7	6.9	7.0	7.8	7.2	7.4	4.9	7.0	6.5	6.5
Tea	do	50.0	80.0	78.0	78.3	77.7	78.6	76.1	57.5	82.1	89.2	89.2
Coffee	do	28.0	52.0	52.2	52.2	53.3	53.4	53.1	28.8	47.4	48.3	48.3
Prunes	do	-----	14.6	15.4	15.3	17.3	16.8	17.4	-----	18.2	18.2	18.4
Raisins	do	-----	14.5	14.8	14.6	14.9	15.5	15.3	-----	13.5	14.5	14.5
Bananas	Dozen	-----	[2] 13.9	[2] 13.5	[2] 13.5	[2] 10.2	[2] 9.8	[2] 10.0	-----	37.7	36.1	34.4
Oranges	do	-----	53.9	50.1	50.5	53.8	54.8	56.5	-----	60.0	58.7	55.8

[1] No. 2½ can.

[2] Per pound

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities

TABLE 5 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food[2] in May, 1926, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in May, 1925, and in April, 1926. For 12 other cities comparisons are given for the one-year and the one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the bureau at different dates since 1913. These percentage changes are based on actual retail prices secured each month from retail dealers and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.[3]

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN THE RETAIL COST OF FOOD IN MAY, 1926, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN APRIL, 1926, MAY, 1925, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES

City	Percentage increase May, 1926, compared with—		Percentage decrease May, 1926, compared with April, 1926	City	Percentage increase May, 1926, compared with—		Percentage decrease May, 1926, compared with April 1926
	1913	May, 1925			1913	May, 1925	
Atlanta	65.9	8.7	0.2	Minneapolis	61.4	7.9	1.2
Baltimore	69.5	4.7	[1] 0.6	Mobile		6.9	0.5
Birmingham	69.8	6.1	[1] 0.6	Newark	57.0	8.3	[1] 1.0
Boston	60.4	7.6	3.1	New Haven	59.8	9.8	2.3
Bridgeport		9.3	0.9	New Orleans	56.9	5.2	0.8
Buffalo	67.2	9.8	1.2	New York	67.1	8.7	[1] 0.4
Butte		3.2	0.6	Norfolk		9.1	0.3
Charleston, S. C	65.8	7.3	1.8	Omaha	59.5	6.3	1.6
Chicago	71.7	8.2	1.0	Peoria		5.6	0.8
Cincinnati	64.4	8.5	[1] 1.0	Philadelphia	65.2	7.6	[1] 0.1
Cleveland	63.8	8.5	0.3	Pittsburgh	60.7	5.0	1.3
Columbus		8.5	0.0	Portland, Me		6.8	3.1
Dallas	55.5	1.6	[1] 0.7	Portland, Oreg	40.0	0.6	0.8
Denver	45.5	5.6	1.0	Providence	59.9	7.4	3.0
Detroit	70.4	7.5	1.4	Richmond	72.2	8.0	0.6
Fall River	58.3	9.6	1.0	Rochester		8.0	1.0
Houston		0.8	0.9	St. Louis	65.8	7.6	0.1
Indianapolis	57.6	9.7	0.9	St. Paul		8.9	0.4
Jacksonville	58.8	9.8	1.4	Salt Lake City	33.9	[2] 3.2	1.2
Kansas City	59.3	6.7	1.4	San Francisco	53.5	1.7	[1] 0.1
Little Rock	54.4	6.8	[1] 0.5	Savannah		9.5	[1] 0.8
Los Angeles	46.4	1.0	0.2	Scranton	66.8	8.4	0.4
Louisville	59.1	6.7	[1] 1.9	Seattle	48.8	1.4	0.5
Manchester	55.0	7.3	2.6	Springfield, Ill		6.8	0.7
Memphis	54.3	6.3	0.1	Washington, D. C	69.7	7.1	0.4
Milwaukee	63.9	8.9	1.4				

[1] Increase. [2] Decrease.

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have all schedules for each city included in the average prices. For the month of May 99.4 per cent of all the firms supplying retail prices in the 51 cities sent in a report promptly. The following-named 47 cities had a perfect record; that is, every merchant who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages: Atlanta, Baltimore, Birmingham, Boston, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Butte, Charleston, S. C., Chicago, Cincinnati,

[2] For list of articles see note 6, p. 126.
[3] The consumption figures used from January, 1913, to December, 1920, for each article in each city are given in the Labor Review for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95. The consumption figures which have been used for each month beginning with January, 1921, are given in the Labor Review, for March 1921, p. 26.

Columbus, Dallas, Detroit, Fall River, Houston, Indianapolis, Jacksonville, Kansas City, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Mobile, Newark, New Haven, New Orleans, New York, Norfolk, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Providence, Richmond, Rochester, St. Louis, St. Paul, Salt Lake City, Savannah, Scranton, Springfield, Ill., and Washington, D. C.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the merchants responded in May, 1926.

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING MAY, 1926

Item	United States	Geographical division				
		North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western
Percentage of reports received	99.4	100.0	100.0	99.7	100.0	97.0
Number of cities in each section from which every report was received	47	14	8	13	8	4

Index Numbers of Retail Prices of Food in the United States

IN TABLE 6 index numbers are given which show the changes in the retail prices of specified food articles, by years, from 1907 to 1925,[4] and by months for 1925, and for January, through May 1926. These index numbers, or relative prices, are based on the year 1913 as 100 and are computed by dividing the average price of each commodity for each month and each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1923 was 143.4, which means that the average money price for the year 1923 was 43.4 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of rib roast for the year 1922 was 139.4, which figures show an increase of 4 points, but an increase of slightly less than 3 per cent in the year.

In the last column of Table 6 are given index numbers showing changes in the retail cost of all articles of food combined. Since January, 1921, these index numbers have been computed from the average prices of the articles of food shown in Tables 1 and 2, weighted according to the average family consumption in 1918. (See March, 1921, issue, p. 25.) Although previous to January, 1921, the number of food articles has varied, these index numbers have been so computed as to be strictly comparable for the entire period. The index numbers based on the average for the year 1913 as 100.0 are 162.4 for April and 161.1 for May, 1926.

The curve shown in the chart on page 144 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale, because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

[4] For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see February, 1921, issue, pp. 19–21; for each month of 1921 and 1922 see February, 1923, issue, p. 69; and for each month of 1923 and 1924, see February, 1925, issue, p. 21.

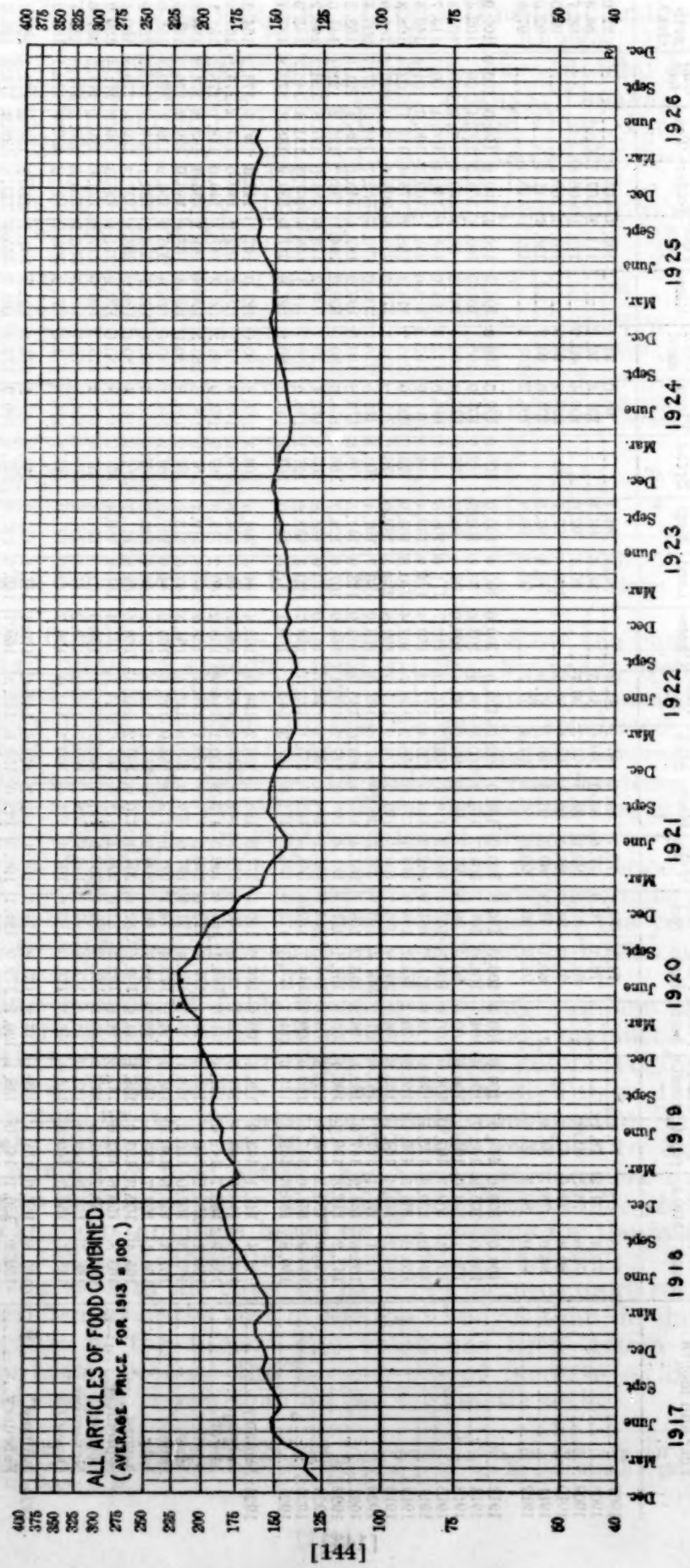
TABLE 6.—INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING CHANGES IN THE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, BY YEARS, 1907 TO 1925, AND BY MONTHS FOR 1925 AND JANUARY THROUGH MAY, 1926

[Average for year 1913=100.0]

Year and month	Sirloin steak	Round steak	Rib roast	Chuck roast	Plate beef	Pork chops	Bacon	Ham	Hens	Milk	Butter	Cheese	Lard	Eggs	Bread	Flour	Corn meal	Rice	Potatoes	Sugar	Tea	Coffee	All articles [1]
1907	71.5	68.0	76.1	------	------	74.3	74.4	75.7	81.4	87.2	85.3	------	80.7	84.1	------	95.0	87.6	------	105.3	105.3	------	------	82.0
1908	73.3	71.2	78.1	------	------	76.1	76.9	77.6	83.0	89.6	85.5	------	80.5	86.1	------	101.5	92.2	------	111.2	107.7	------	------	84.3
1909	76.6	73.5	81.3	------	------	82.7	82.9	92.0	88.5	91.3	90.1	------	90.1	92.6	------	109.4	93.9	------	112.3	106.6	------	------	88.7
1910	80.3	77.9	84.6	------	------	91.6	94.5	91.4	93.6	94.6	93.8	------	103.8	97.7	------	108.2	94.9	------	101.0	109.3	------	------	93.0
1911	80.6	78.7	84.8	------	------	85.1	91.3	89.3	91.0	95.5	87.9	------	88.4	93.5	------	101.6	94.3	------	130.5	111.4	------	------	92.0
1912	91.0	89.3	93.6	------	------	91.2	90.5	90.6	93.5	97.4	97.7	------	93.5	98.9	------	105.2	101.6	------	132.1	115.1	------	------	97.6
1913	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1914	102.0	105.8	103.0	104.4	104.1	104.6	101.8	101.7	102.2	100.5	94.4	103.6	98.6	102.3	112.5	103.9	105.1	101.2	108.3	108.2	101.4	99.7	102.4
1915	101.1	103.0	101.4	100.6	100.0	96.4	99.8	97.2	97.5	99.2	93.4	105.0	93.4	98.7	125.0	125.8	108.4	104.3	88.9	120.1	100.2	100.6	101.3
1916	107.5	109.7	107.4	106.9	106.0	108.3	106.4	109.2	110.7	102.2	103.0	116.7	111.0	108.8	130.4	134.6	112.6	104.6	158.8	146.4	100.4	100.3	113.7
1917	124.0	129.8	125.5	130.6	129.8	151.7	151.9	142.2	134.5	125.4	127.2	150.4	174.9	139.4	164.3	211.2	192.2	119.0	252.7	169.3	106.9	101.4	146.4
1918	153.2	165.5	155.1	166.3	170.2	185.7	195.9	178.1	177.0	156.2	150.7	162.4	210.8	164.9	175.0	203.0	226.7	148.3	188.2	176.4	119.1	102.4	168.3
1919	164.2	174.4	164.1	168.8	166.9	201.4	205.2	198.5	193.0	174.2	177.0	192.8	233.5	182.0	178.6	218.2	213.3	173.6	223.5	205.5	128.9	145.3	185.9
1920	172.1	177.1	167.7	163.8	151.2	201.4	193.7	206.3	209.9	187.6	183.0	188.2	186.7	197.4	205.4	245.5	216.7	200.0	370.6	352.7	134.7	157.7	203.4
1921	152.8	154.3	147.0	132.5	118.2	166.2	158.2	181.4	186.4	164.0	135.0	153.9	113.9	147.5	176.8	175.8	150.0	109.2	182.4	145.5	128.1	121.8	153.3
1922	147.2	144.8	139.4	123.1	105.8	157.1	147.4	181.4	169.0	147.2	125.1	148.9	107.6	128.7	155.4	154.5	130.0	109.2	164.7	132.7	125.2	121.1	141.6
1923	153.9	150.2	143.4	126.3	106.6	144.8	144.8	169.1	164.3	155.1	144.7	167.0	112.0	134.8	155.4	142.4	136.7	109.2	170.6	183.6	127.8	126.5	146.2
1924	155.9	151.6	145.5	130.0	109.1	146.7	139.6	168.4	165.7	155.1	135.0	159.7	120.3	138.6	157.1	148.5	156.7	116.1	158.8	167.3	131.4	145.3	145.9
1925	159.8	155.6	149.5	135.0	114.1	174.3	173.0	195.5	171.8	157.3	143.1	166.1	147.5	151.0	167.9	184.8	180.0	127.6	211.8	130.9	138.8	172.8	157.4
1925: January	152.4	147.1	143.9	128.1	109.9	146.2	149.3	177.0	168.1	156.2	136.0	162.4	144.3	204.4	164.3	181.8	180.0	123.0	147.1	147.3	136.4	173.2	154.3
February	151.6	146.6	143.4	127.5	109.1	144.3	150.4	178.8	169.5	156.2	132.1	164.7	144.3	154.8	169.6	193.9	183.3	124.1	152.9	140.0	137.5	174.8	151.4
March	155.9	150.7	147.0	131.3	111.6	178.1	164.4	190.3	173.2	155.1	144.9	165.2	146.2	113.3	167.9	193.0	183.3	125.3	147.1	140.0	138.1	175.5	151.1
April	159.1	155.2	150.0	135.0	114.1	175.2	172.6	198.0	177.9	155.1	139.2	165.2	146.8	110.4	167.9	184.8	183.3	126.4	141.2	136.4	138.8	174.8	150.8
May	160.6	157.0	150.5	138.1	115.7	171.4	171.9	197.0	177.9	153.9	135.5	164.3	143.0	113.9	167.9	184.8	180.0	126.4	158.8	130.9	139.0	175.2	151.6
June	161.4	157.8	150.5	136.3	114.0	172.4	174.1	197.0	173.2	153.9	137.6	165.2	144.9	122.6	167.9	184.8	180.0	126.4	205.9	130.9	139.3	170.5	155.0
July	166.1	163.7	153.5	140.0	115.7	186.7	180.4	202.2	171.8	155.1	138.9	165.6	148.7	133.9	167.9	184.8	180.0	128.7	258.8	129.1	139.3	170.5	159.9
August	165.4	162.3	153.0	138.1	114.9	190.5	182.6	204.1	170.0	156.2	141.3	166.5	153.8	141.7	167.9	184.8	180.0	129.9	258.8	127.3	139.5	170.8	160.4
September	163.8	159.6	152.0	137.5	114.9	192.4	183.0	204.1	171.8	159.6	145.7	167.4	151.9	150.4	167.9	184.8	180.0	129.9	211.8	127.3	139.3	171.4	159.0
October	162.2	158.7	151.5	137.5	116.5	186.2	183.7	201.9	171.4	160.7	155.1	168.3	152.5	174.8	167.9	178.8	176.7	129.9	217.6	123.6	139.3	171.5	161.6
November	158.7	154.3	149.0	135.0	116.5	178.6	182.2	198.9	168.1	160.7	155.9	169.2	147.5	201.2	167.9	181.8	176.7	131.0	305.9	120.0	139.2	171.8	167.1
December	158.7	154.3	149.5	135.6	116.5	170.0	180.0	197.4	171.4	160.7	153.0	169.7	143.0	191.9	167.9	184.8	173.3	131.0	305.9	121.8	139.3	172.1	165.5
1926: January	160.6	157.0	151.5	138.1	119.8	173.8	178.5	198.1	181.2	159.6	144.6	170.1	141.1	156.2	167.9	187.0	173.3	133.3	341.2	121.8	139.9	172.1	164.3
February	159.8	156.1	148.0	138.1	120.7	172.9	181.1	199.3	182.6	159.6	142.3	169.7	140.5	127.0	167.9	190.9	173.3	133.3	335.3	121.8	139.9	172.1	161.5
March	160.2	156.5	151.0	138.1	120.7	177.1	179.3	200.7	185.0	157.3	139.9	168.3	138.6	111.6	167.9	187.9	173.3	134.5	329.4	121.8	139.9	172.1	159.9
April	161.8	157.8	152.5	139.4	121.5	182.4	179.6	202.6	190.1	156.2	132.9	165.2	136.1	111.9	167.9	184.9	170.0	134.5	394.1	120.0	140.3	171.5	162.4
May	163.4	160.5	153.5	140.6	120.7	191.9	182.6	207.8	192.5	156.2	130.5	162.9	136.1	112.8	167.9	184.9	170.0	134.5	352.9	121.8	140.4	171.1	161.1

[1] 30 articles in 1907; 15 articles 1908–1912; 22 articles 1913–1920; 43 articles 1291–1926.

TREND OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, JANUARY 1917, TO MAY 1926



Retail Prices of Coal in the United States [a]

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on January 15 and July 15, 1913, May 15, 1925, and April 15 and May 15, 1926, for the United States and for each of the cities from which retail food prices have been obtained. The prices quoted are for coal delivered to consumers but do not include charges for storing the coal in cellar or coal bin where an extra handling is necessary.

In addition to the prices for Pennsylvania anthracite, prices are shown for Colorado, Arkansas, and New Mexico anthracite in those cities where these coals form any considerable portion of the sales for household use.

The prices shown for bituminous coal are averages of prices of the several kinds sold for household use.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, MAY 15, 1925, AND APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1926

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	May 15	Apr. 15	May 15
United States:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	$7.99	$7.46	$14.98	$15.54	$15.41
Chestnut	8.15	7.68	14.78	15.37	15.18
Bituminous	5.48	5.39	8.63	9.11	8.76
Atlanta, Ga.:					
Bituminous	5.88	4.83	6.67	7.37	7.37
Baltimore, Md.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	[1] 7.70	[1] 7.24	[1] 15.50	[1] 16.00	[1] 16.00
Chestnut	[1] 7.93	[1] 7.49	[1] 15.00	[1] 15.50	[1] 15.50
Bituminous			7.45	7.71	7.71
Birmingham, Ala.:					
Bituminous	4.22	4.01	6.73	6.92	7.05
Boston, Mass.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.25	7.50	15.75	16.00	16.00
Chestnut	8.25	7.75	15.50	15.75	15.75
Bridgeport, Conn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove			15.00	15.00	15.00
Chestnut			15.00	15.00	15.00
Buffalo, N. Y.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	6.75	6.54	13.39	13.78	13.75
Chestnut	6.99	6.80	13.02	13.44	13.39
Butte, Mont.:					
Bituminous			10.83	11.04	11.07
Charleston, S. C.:					
Bituminous	[1] 6.75	[1] 6.75	11.00	11.00	11.00
Chicago, Ill.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.00	7.80	16.10	16.86	16.84
Chestnut	8.25	8.05	15.98	16.69	16.67
Bituminous	4.97	4.65	8.06	8.39	8.12
Cincinnati, Ohio:					
Bituminous	3.50	3.38	6.50	6.53	6.56
Cleveland, Ohio:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	7.50	7.25	14.48	14.75	14.75
Chestnut	7.75	7.50	14.37	14.75	14.75
Bituminous	4.14	4.14	7.93	8.48	8.57
Columbus, Ohio:					
Bituminous			5.99	6.59	6.59

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

[a] Prices of coal were formerly secured semiannually and published in the March and September issues of the Labor Review. Since June, 1920, these prices have been secured and published monthly.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, MAY 15, 1925, AND APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	May 15	Apr. 15	May 15
Dallas, Tex.:					
Arkansas anthracite—					
Egg			$14.50	$15.33	$15.17
Bituminous	$8.25	$7.21	11.22	12.39	11.72
Denver, Colo.:					
Colorado anthracite—					
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	8.88	9.00	15.33	15.00	15.50
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	8.50	8.50	15.58	15.06	15.56
Bituminous	5.25	4.88	9.39	8.83	9.19
Detroit, Mich.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.00	7.45	15.08	16.42	16.00
Chestnut	8.25	7.65	15.08	16.42	15.50
Bituminous	5.20	5.20	8.70	10.45	9.33
Fall River, Mass.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.25	7.43	15.63	16.75	16.75
Chestnut	8.25	7.61	15.46	16.25	16.25
Houston, Tex.:					
Bituminous			10.83	11.50	11.50
Indianapolis, Ind.:					
Bituminous	3.81	3.70	6.53	7.01	6.56
Jacksonville, Fla.:					
Bituminous	7.50	7.00	12.00	14.00	13.00
Kansas City, Mo.:					
Arkansas anthracite—					
Furnace			14.58	13.90	13.50
Stove No. 4			15.94	15.50	15.33
Bituminous	4.39	3.94	8.07	7.97	7.84
Little Rock, Ark.:					
Arkansas anthracite—					
Egg			14.00	14.00	14.00
Bituminous	6.00	5.33	10.30	10.60	10.00
Los Angeles, Calif.:					
Bituminous	13.52	12.50	15.94	15.94	15.31
Louisville, Ky.:					
Bituminous	4.20	4.00	6.17	6.37	6.33
Manchester, N. H.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	10.00	8.50	16.50	17.00	17.00
Chestnut	10.00	8.50	16.00	17.00	17.00
Memphis, Tenn.:					
Bituminous	[1] 4.34	[1] 4.22	7.13	7.84	6.75
Milwaukee, Wis.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.00	7.85	16.40	16.80	16.80
Chestnut	8.25	8.10	16.25	16.65	16.65
Bituminous	6.25	5.71	9.08	11.42	9.43
Minneapolis, Minn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	9.25	9.05	17.70	18.10	18.10
Chestnut	9.50	9.30	17.55	18.04	17.98
Bituminous	5.89	5.79	10.86	11.19	11.09
Mobile, Ala.:					
Bituminous			9.00	9.31	9.23
Newark, N. J.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	6.50	6.25	13.18	14.00	14.00
Chestnut	6.75	6.50	12.93	13.50	13.50
New Haven, Conn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	7.50	6.25	14.55	15.80	15.05
Chestnut	7.50	6.25	14.55	15.80	15.05
New Orleans, La.:					
Bituminous	[1] 6.06	[1] 6.06	9.29	9.86	9.32
New York, N. Y.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	7.07	6.66	14.02	14.75	14.75
Chestnut	7.14	6.80	13.68	14.54	14.50
Norfolk, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove			15.00	17.00	15.50
Chestnut			15.00	17.00	15.50
Bituminous			8.57	9.34	8.46

[1] Per 10-barrel lot (1,800 pounds).

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES FOR COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, MAY 15, 1925, AND APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	May 15	Apr. 15	May 15
Omaha, Nebr.:					
Bituminous	$6.63	$6.13	$9.50	$10.29	$9.46
Peoria, Ill.:					
Bituminous	----------	----------	6.44	7.05	6.93
Philadelphia, Pa.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	[1] 7.16	[1] 6.89	[1] 14.57	[1] 15.79	[1] 15.79
Chestnut	[1] 7.38	[1] 7.14	[1] 14.11	[1] 15.54	[1] 15.54
Pittsburgh, Pa.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Chestnut	[1] 8.00	[1] 7.44	14.38	16.38	15.25
Bituminous	[2] 3.16	[2] 3.18	6.72	6.13	6.13
Portland, Me.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	----------	----------	16.08	16.56	16.56
Chestnut	----------	----------	16.08	16.56	16.56
Portland, Oreg.:					
Bituminous	9.79	9.66	13.23	13.11	12.27
Providence, R. I.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	[4] 8.25	[4] 7.50	[4] 15.75	[4] 16.25	[4] 16.25
Chestnut	[4] 8.25	[4] 7.75	[4] 15.50	[4] 16.00	[4] 16.00
Richmond, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.00	7.25	15.13	15.50	15.00
Chestnut	8.00	7.25	15.13	15.50	15.00
Bituminous	5.50	4.94	8.00	8.66	8.68
Rochester, N. Y.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	----------	----------	13.99	14.60	14.60
Chestnut	----------	----------	13.67	14.15	14.15
St. Louis, Mo.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.44	7.74	16.20	17.20	16.70
Chestnut	8.68	7.99	15.95	17.00	16.45
Bituminous	3.36	3.04	6.02	6.59	5.87
St. Paul, Minn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	9.20	9.05	17.68	18.10	18.10
Chestnut	9.45	9.30	17.53	18.01	18.04
Bituminous	6.07	6.04	10.37	11.47	11.32
Salt Lake City, Utah:					
Colorado anthracite—					
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	11.00	11.50	18.00	18.00	18.00
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	11.00	11.50	18.00	18.00	18.00
Bituminous	5.64	5.46	8.41	8.43	8.43
San Francisco, Calif.:					
New Mexico anthracite—					
Cerillos egg	17.00	17.00	25.00	26.50	25.00
Colorado anthracite—					
Egg	17.00	17.00	24.50	25.50	24.50
Bituminous	12.00	12.00	16.39	17.06	16.22
Savannah, Ga.:					
Bituminous	----------	----------	[5] 10.25	[5] 10.88	[5] 10.88
Scranton, Pa.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	4.25	4.31	10.28	10.92	10.92
Chestnut	4.50	4.56	10.20	10.67	10.67
Seattle, Wash.:					
Bituminous	7.63	7.70	10.15	9.96	8.21
Springfield, Ill.:					
Bituminous	----------	----------	4.35	4.38	4.38

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
[2] Per 25-bushel lot (1,900 pounds).
[4] Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.
[5] All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES FOR COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, MAY 15, 1925, AND APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	May 15	Apr. 15	May 15
Washington, D. C.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	[1] $7.50	[1] $7.38	[1] $15.11	[1] $15.53	[1] $15.53
Chestnut	[1] 7.65	[1] 7.53	[1] 14.57	[1] 15.22	[1] 15.22
Bituminous—					
Prepared sizes, low volatile			[1] 10.38	[1] 11.67	[1] 11.08
Prepared sizes, high volatile			[1] 8.38	[1] 9.00	[1] 9.00
Run of mine, mixed			[1] 7.44	[1] 7.75	[1] 7.75

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in May, 1926

A SLIGHT increase in the general level of wholesale prices from April to May is shown by information gathered in representative markets by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor. The bureau's weighted index number, which includes 404 commodities or price series, registered 151.7 for May compared with 151.1 for April, an increase of nearly one-half of 1 per cent. Compared with May, 1925, with an index number of 155.2, there was a decrease of 2¼ per cent.

Farm products averaged slightly lower than in April, due to decreases in grains, sheep, cotton, potatoes, and wool. Clothing materials, metals, building materials, and house-furnishing goods, also were somewhat cheaper. In other groups prices were higher than in the preceding month, ranging from one-third of 1 per cent in the case of foods and chemicals and drugs to 2¾ per cent in the case of fuels.

Of the 404 commodities or price series for which comparable information for April and May was collected, increases were shown in 84 instances and decreases in 152 instances. In 168 instances no change in price was reported. The large increase reported for fuels was responsible for the net increase in the general price level.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES

[1913=100.0]

Commodity group	May, 1925	1926	
		April	May
Farm products	151.9	144.9	144.2
Foods	153.2	153.2	153.8
Clothing materials	188.4	176.8	176.1
Fuels	168.2	174.0	178.7
Metals and metal products	127.2	126.5	125.2
Building materials	173.6	173.2	171.6
Chemicals and drugs	133.1	130.3	130.7
House-furnishing goods	170.5	163.4	162.2
Miscellaneous	131.3	126.5	124.7
All commodities	155.2	151.1	151.7

Comparing prices in May with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that farm products and miscellaneous commodities declined 5 per cent and clothing materials 6½ per cent. In all other groups also, except foods and fuels, prices averaged lower than in May, 1925, ranging from nearly 1¼ per cent for building materials to 4¾ per cent for house-furnishing goods. Foods, on the other hand, were one-third of 1 per cent higher and fuels were 6¼ per cent higher than in May of last year.

Comparison of Retail Price Changes in the United States and in Foreign Countries

THE principal index numbers of retail prices published by foreign countries have been brought together with those of this bureau in the subjoined table after having been reduced in most cases to a common base, namely, prices for July, 1914, equal 100. This base was selected instead of the average for the year 1913, which is used in other tables of index numbers compiled by the bureau, because of the fact that in numerous instances satisfactory information for 1913 was not available. A part of the countries shown in the table now publish index numbers of retail prices on the July, 1914, base. In such cases, therefore, the index numbers are reproduced as published. For other countries the index numbers here shown have been obtained by dividing the index for each month specified in the table by the index for July, 1914, or the nearest period thereto as published in the original sources. As stated in the table, the number of articles included in the index numbers for the different countries differs widely. These results should not, therefore, be considered as closely compara ble with one another. In certain instances, also, the figures are not absolutely comparable from month to month over the entire period, owing to slight changes in the list of commodities and the localities included at successive dates.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Country	United States	Canada	Belgium	Czecho-slovakia	Den-mark	Finland	France (except Paris)	France (Paris)	Germany
Number of localities	51	60	59	22	100	21	320	1	71
Commodities included	43 foods	29 foods	56 (foods, etc.)	32 (17 foods)	Foods	36 foods	13 (11 foods)	13 (11 foods)	Foods
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Department of Labor	Ministry of Industry and Labor	Office of Statistics	Government Statistical Department	Central Bureau of Statistics	Ministry of Labor	Ministry of Labor	Federal Statistical Bureau
Base=100	July, 1914	July, 1914	April, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	January–June, 1914	August, 1914	July, 1914	October, 1913 July, 1914
Year and month									
1923									
Jan.	141	142	383	941	180	1168	----------	309	----------
Feb.	139	142	397	934	----------	1103	331	316	----------
Mar.	139	145	408	926	----------	1096	----------	321	----------
Apr.	140	143	409	927	----------	1047	----------	320	----------
May	140	140	413	928	----------	1016	337	325	----------
June	141	138	419	933	----------	1004	----------	331	----------
July	144	137	429	921	188	1003	----------	321	----------
Aug.	143	142	439	892	----------	1087	349	328	----------
Sept.	146	141	453	903	----------	1103	----------	339	----------
Oct.	147	144	458	901	----------	1140	----------	349	----------
Nov.	148	144	463	898	----------	1133	373	355	----------
Dec.	147	145	470	909	----------	1112	----------	365	----------
1924									
Jan.	146	145	480	917	194	1089	----------	376	127
Feb.	144	145	495	917	----------	1070	400	384	117
Mar.	141	143	510	908	----------	1067	----------	392	120
Apr.	138	137	498	907	----------	1035	----------	380	123
May	138	133	485	916	----------	1037	393	378	126
June	139	133	492	923	----------	1040	----------	370	120
July	140	134	493	909	200	1052	----------	360	126
Aug.	141	137	498	897	----------	1125	400	366	122
Sept.	144	139	503	908	----------	1125	----------	374	125
Oct.	145	139	513	916	----------	1156	----------	383	134
Nov.	147	141	520	922	----------	1160	426	396	135
Dec.	148	143	521	928	----------	1160	----------	404	135
1925									
Jan.	151	145	521	[1] 899	215	1130	----------	408	137
Feb.	148	147	517	[1] 911	----------	1120	440	410	145
Mar.	148	145	511	[1] 904	----------	1152	----------	415	146
Apr.	148	142	506	[1] 901	----------	1137	----------	409	144
May	148	141	502	[1] 894	----------	1097	434	418	141
June	152	141	505	[1] 914	----------	1101	----------	422	146
July	156	141	509	[1] 916	210	1145	----------	421	154
Aug.	157	146	517	[1] 894	----------	1222	451	423	154
Sept.	156	146	525	[1] 884	----------	1187	----------	431	153
Oct.	158	147	533	[1] 875	----------	1165	----------	433	151
Nov.	164	151	534	[1] 863	----------	1164	471	444	147
Dec.	162	156	534	[1] 866	----------	1138	----------	463	146
1926									
Jan.	161	157	527	854	177	1090	----------	480	143
Feb.	158	155	526	845	----------	1106	503	495	142
Mar.	156	154	521	832	----------	1100	----------	497	141

[1] Revised index (29 foods) since January, 1925.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN OTHER COUNTRIES—Continued

Country	Italy	Netherlands	Norway	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	South Africa	India (Bombay)	Australia	New Zealand
Number of localities	47	6	31	49	33	600	9	1	30	25
Commodities included	20 foods and charcoal	29 (27 foods)	Foods	40 (foods, etc.)	Foods	21 foods	18 foods	17 foods	46 foods	59 foods
Computing agency	Ministry of National Economy	Central Bureau of Statistics	Central Bureau of Statistics	Social Board	Labor Office (Revised)	Ministry of Labor	Office of Census and Statistics	Labor Office (Revised)	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Census and Statistics Office
Base=100	1913	January-June, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914
Year and month										
1923										
Jan.	542	148	214	166	160	175	117	151	145	139
Feb.	527	149	214	165	158	173	117	150	144	140
Mar.	524	149	214	166	159	171	117	149	145	141
Apr.	530	149	212	163	161	168	117	150	152	142
May	535	147	214	161	164	162	118	148	156	143
June	532	145	213	161	166	160	118	146	162	142
July	518	145	218	160	166	162	116	148	164	142
Aug.	512	143	220	161	165	165	115	149	165	143
Sept.	514	142	218	165	167	168	115	149	161	145
Oct.	517	145	217	165	167	172	117	147	157	146
Nov.	526	149	221	164	171	173	120	147	157	147
Dec.	528	149	226	164	172	176	118	152	156	147
1924										
Jan.	527	150	230	163	173	175	120	154	155	150
Feb.	529	151	234	162	172	177	122	151	153	149
Mar.	523	152	241	162	171	176	122	147	152	150
Apr.	527	152	240	159	169	167	122	143	150	150
May	530	151	241	159	169	163	122	143	151	150
June	543	151	240	158	170	160	120	147	149	150
July	538	150	248	159	170	162	117	151	148	148
Aug.	534	150	257	163	170	164	177	156	147	146
Sept.	538	152	261	165	170	166	117	156	146	145
Oct.	556	154	264	172	174	172	120	156	146	145
Nov.	583	156	269	172	175	179	122	157	147	148
Dec.	601	157	274	172	175	180	121	156	148	150
1925										
Jan.	609	156	277	170	172	178	120	152	148	147
Feb.	609	157	283	170	172	176	120	152	149	146
Mar.	610	157	284	171	171	176	121	155	151	149
Apr.	606	155	276	170	169	170	124	153	152	149
May	600	154	265	169	168	167	123	151	154	150
June	602	152	261	169	169	166	122	149	155	149
July	605	152	260	169	169	167	120	152	156	151
Aug.	619	152	254	170	169	168	119	147	156	152
Sept.	642	152	241	168	170	170	118	146	156	153
Oct.	645	149	228	166	168	172	119	148	157	155
Nov.	652	149	223	165	168	172	117	149	156	156
Dec.	653	148	221	164	167	174	116	151	155	154
1926										
Jan.	658	148	216	162	165	171	116	151	155	154
Feb.	649	147	212	160	163	168	117	150	154	153
Mar.	636	147	205	159	161	165	118	151	159	152

South African Report on Cost of Living

THE Government of South Africa has recently issued a report on the cost of living, prepared by a committee the date of whose appointment is not given, but whose study deals with conditions in 1925.[1] The most important charge given the committee was to report on the expenditure required to maintain in certain typical industrial areas, (*a*) on an average regimen and (*b*) on a minimum regimen, a civilized standard of living for a typical family of man, wife, and three children.

With a view to securing light on this question, actual budgets were collected from a number of families. To overcome the difficulty caused by differences in local prices, a quantity budget form was prepared by the committee, on which returns were made. Some of the budgets received were either incomplete in some essential respect or contained figures so unusual as to arouse suspicion, but after all doubtful ones were eliminated 442 budgets remained covering families in all the industrial areas of South Africa, and ranging, as to occupation of the head, from laborers to bankers and Government officials. The budgets were divided into three groups, according to whether the family income was under £20 [2] a month, £20 but not exceeding £30 a month, or over £30 not exceeding £41 13s. 4d. per month—i. e., £500 a year— and for each of these groups expenditures were tabulated under the headings of food, fuel and light, rent, and sundries. As a result of this analysis, the committee reached the conclusion that the expenditure of the second group might be taken as representing an average regimen.

> We are asked to state what the cost of living on an average regimen is. The definition of what may be looked upon as an average regimen is a matter of some difficulty, but taking all the facts into consideration, we are of the opinion that the figure £27 16s. 9d. given in respect of all areas combined in Group 2—i. e., incomes exceeding £20 but not exceeding £30 per month—may be accepted as approximating closely the monthly expenditure necessary to maintain in South Africa a family of five consisting of man, wife, and three children, on an average regimen on a civilized standard of living.

Converted into United States money this amounts to about $1,625 per year. The "typical family" whose needs it is supposed to supply differs somewhat from the family taken as a standard by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the ages of the children being taken as 12, 9, and 5, instead of 12, 6, and 4, as in the bureau's studies.

The committee did not feel that it had the time and money needed for the thorough investigation necessary in order to establish the cost of a minimum regimen under a civilized standard. Accordingly it made a careful study of minimum budgets drawn up by various investigators and reached its conclusion from these data interpreted in the light of South African conditions.

> Accurate results can only be obtained, as we have already said, by an extensive and intensive investigation, but on the evidence available at the present time and taking all the circumstances into consideration we think that the cost of a minimum regimen on a civilized standard of living in the 9 principal towns might be taken as ranging from £90 to £110 per annum.

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[1] Union South Africa. Department of Labor. Cost of Living Committee. Report, 1925. Capetown, 1925.

[2] Pound at par=$4.8665, shilling=24.3 cents, penny=2.03 cents; exchange rate approximately at par.

Apparently this conclusion met considerable adverse criticism, and the Social and Industrial Review, the publication of the South African Department of Labor, in discussing the report, explains that this amount is meant only to provide data on which any assessment of old-age pensions, disability pensions, or poor relief might be based. "To suggest that the committee recommended this minimum as a possible standard of wage payment is to be entirely wide of the mark; but if those responsible for poor relief would even approximate the minimum suggested, there can be no doubt that the position of the unemployed and the poor would be vastly improved in comparison with the standard of relief which is considered adequate or otherwise passes muster at the present time."

The proportion of the income expended on various items by the different income groups is shown by the following table:

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE, BY INCOME GROUPS

Item	Income not over £20 a month	Income over £20 but not over £30 a month	Income over £30 but not over £41 13s. 4d. a month	All incomes up to £41 13s. 4d. a month
Food	41.62	40.11	34.65	36.63
Fuel and light	7.56	5.11	4.80	5.05
Rent	20.91	17.48	18.02	18.04
Sundries (including clothing)	29.91	37.30	42.53	40.28
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Retail Prices in Maracaibo, Venezuela, 1921 and 1926

A REPORT from the American consul at Maracaibo, dated April 30, 1926, gives the following table showing the average retail prices of some of the principal articles of food in Maracaibo for the years 1921 and 1926:

Article		1921 (bolivares) [1]	1926 (bolivares)
Beef	kilogram	2.00	9.00
Chickens, large	each	4.00	10.00
Eggs	dozen	2.00	4.00
Sugar	pound	.20	.75
Plantain fruit	100	3.00	25.00
Cucumbers	each	.20	2.00
Tomatoes	dozen	1.00	3.00
Corn	100 pounds	10.42	45.00

[1] Bolivar at par =19.3 cents; exchange rate varies; kilogram=2.2 pounds.

LABOR AGREEMENTS, AWARDS, AND DECISIONS

AGREEMENTS

Cleaners, Dyers, and Pressers—Detroit

THE following extracts are taken from the agreement of Cleaners, Dyers, and Pressers' Union, Local No. 17834, Detroit, effective March 22, 1926, to March 1, 1927:

ARTICLE 1. That from and after the date hereof and up to March 1, 1927, the employers bind themselves to the employment in their cleaning and dyeing plants only good-standing members of the said Cleaners, Dyers, and Pressers' Union, Local No. 17834, and no others, said union to be the sole judge of its good-standing members, on the following work of cleaning, dyeing, spotting, pressing, tailoring, steaming, marking, sorting, and all other work in the factory end of the business.

ART. 2. The union shall at all times, to the utmost of its abilities, furnish the employers skilled help, capable of properly doing the work required in the respective plants of the cleaners and dyers operated by the employers.

ART. 3. When the union is unable to furnish help, the employers may hire help which does not belong to the union, provided such help makes application for membership within two weeks of the beginning of such employment; in the event of failure or refusal of membership within said period, such help shall be immediately dismissed and not reemployed by any employer until membership is acquired.

ART. 4. A 44-hour week shall constitute the women's weekly hours. The daily hours not to commence before 7.30 a. m. and finish not later than 5 p. m., 8 hours work constituting a day's work straight time, except one-half hour for lunch from 12 to 12.30. Any hours before 7.30 and after 5 p. m. are to be considered overtime.

Men employees may be started to work any time after 6 a. m. or before 10 a. m., but their day's work shall consist of 4 hours on Monday and not to exceed 9 hours on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. Saturday workday to consist of 6½ hours, which must be finished not later than 3 p. m. The 10-o'clock starting time shall not apply on Monday. This makes a total of 46½ hours per week.

ART. 5. All overtime shall be paid at the rate of time and one-half. Work on Sundays and holidays shall be paid at the rate of double time.

ART. 6. The minimum wage scale shall be as follows: Sample dyers, $75; standard color dyers, $55; head fancy spotter, $85; fancy spotter, $70; gray spotter, $53.50; dark spotter (1 year experience, 30 days on job), $45; head cleaners (in charge of two or more helpers), $75; cleaners, $50; cleaners' helper, $37.50; head wet fancy cleaner, $55; machine and hand pressers, $40; beginners, male, $25; bushelmen, union scale of tailors' union; shortage man, $45; sorter (man), $35; sorter (woman), $25; marker, $40; dressmakers, $30; female pressers, $25; female markers, $25; beginners, female, $15.

Should the raise as specified fail to bring the individual's rate up to the minimum, then such additional raises as are necessary to make the minimum will be granted. Beginners are not included.

Combination workers shall be paid at the highest rate of any class of work they perform.

ART. 9. It is hereby understood by both parties that piecework is strictly prohibited.

ART. 11. Members of the union shall not be required to work on orders placed by firms unfair to said union, and refusal of such members to work on such orders shall not be considered a violation of this agreement.

ART. 12. The employer shall have the absolute right to discharge any employee at any time within a period of two weeks from the date of employment. This right of the employer shall be absolute and not subject to any review.

ART. 13. It is hereby agreed by both parties that one week's notice should be given in cases of quitting or discharging. Such notice shall be in writing and give cause when demanded.

ART. 14. It is also agreed and understood by and between the parties hereto that if there should be any grievance between any employee and his or her employer, it shall be referred to the union business agent for settlement. In the event such grievance is incapable of settlement by this method, the employers and the union shall appoint a grievance committee consisting of two members, respectively, to settle such grievance; in the event of their failure to agree, they shall mutually agree upon some individual to sit with them as a board of arbitration. The decision of a majority of said board shall be final and binding. It is understood that all employees shall remain at work, and that there shall be no "lockout" pending the settlement of any grievance. Any dispute arising between the employer and the union, whether relating to the construction or interpretation of this agreement, shall be adjusted by the board of arbitration in the same manner.

ART. 15. The union shall have the right to select one of the members to act as shop chairman, and it shall be the duty of said shop chairman to see that all members of the union live up to the rules and regulations laid down by the union and the firm. Shop chairmen shall not be discriminated against in any way by the employer.

ART. 17. Should any member of the union be suspended or expelled from the union the employer agrees to discharge such member within one week after being notified by the union.

ART. 18. The employer agrees to keep working rooms in a clean and sanitary condition and to furnish its employees with cool drinking water during the summer months.

ART. 19. Should the slackness of business warrant the laying off of help, employer agrees to divide as much as possible the work equally amongst all employees. New employees who have been employed less than six months shall be laid off before there shall be any division of work. Last employee laid off shall get first preference to be rehired in their former employment unless laid off for cause. When a member is asked to report for work at the regular starting hour in the morning that member shall receive a full day's pay.

ART. 21. It is hereby agreed by all the employees who are under this contract and who are members of the union, or who have made application to join the union, that the employers are authorized and directed to deduct from the first week's pay in each month and in no case later than the 10th of the month, the amount of the union dues that are to be paid by each individual to the union, in accordance with the rules and regulations of the union.

A list of such employees will be furnished the employers by the shop chairman at least 10 days prior to the pay day mentioned above, together with the amounts to be deducted from each pay envelope. This money shall be turned over to the shop chairman and he shall receipt for same.

ART. 22. It shall be the duty of the association to see that all their members sign this agreement as individuals and further to see that they live up to it.

ART. 23. This agreement shall remain in effect until an arbitration board has definitely decided and both parties have agreed on a new agreement. The arbitration board shall make its decision not later than 30 days after expiration of this present agreement. Any decision of the board of arbitration shall be retroactive to March 1, 1927.

Commercial Telegraphers

THE Canadian Marconi Wireless System, Division No. 59, of the Commercial Telegraphers' Union of America, made a three-year agreement with the Canadian Marconi Co., March 8, 1926, effective April 1, from which the following extracts are taken:

ARTICLE 1, CLAUSE A. A list showing the seniority as at December 31, 1925, of all telegraphers and the divisions to which they are attached, shall be supplied the general chairman and the general secretary-treasurer of Canadian Marconi Wireless System, Division No. 59, Commercial Telegraphers' Union of America,

by March 1, 1926, and such list shall be kept up to date monthly by advising these officers of any changes. Subsequent lists shall show divisions of new entrants.

CLAUSE B. The right of seniority shall govern in all cases, ability, technical and otherwise, being equal.

CLAUSE C. All seniority shall be determined by accumulated service, and seniors under this clause who have the requisite ability, technical and otherwise, shall be eligible for, and shall receive consideration in the matter of appointments to the higher positions in the service. Absence consequent upon authorized union or company conferences shall not affect seniority.

ART. 2, CLAUSE A. Any telegrapher in good standing whose services have been dispensed with on account of reduction in staff, shall be given preference in the filling of new positions or vacancies, ability, technical and otherwise, being equal.

ART. 3, CLAUSE A. In case of reduction of staff, the junior telegrapher shall be dispensed with first, having due regard to the exigencies of the service, ability, technical and otherwise, being equal.

ART. 4, CLAUSE A. Two weeks' leave of absence, with full wages and maintenance allowance as per scale shall be due to telegraphers upon completion of each one full year's service at coast stations. Applications in writing therefor shall be made within 30 days, subsequent to expiry of date due, and shall be granted, at the company's convenience, as soon as possible thereafter.

CLAUSE B. Casual service aboard ship by way of temporary relief shall not be deemed a reason for denial of annual vacation.

CLAUSE C. Vacation periods shall not be cumulative and payment in lieu of lapsed vacations shall not be made.

CLAUSE D. Generous effort shall be made to grant vacations of uncertain and variable duration, and with full wages as per scale, to ships' telegraphers who have been on extended voyages immediately prior to their return, and who have been unable to secure vacation for a prolonged period.

ART. 5, CLAUSE A. In the event of a three-man station being short-staffed, thereby making it necessary for the remaining two telegraphers to keep constant watch between them, overtime for the extra duty in excess of 8 hours per day shall be paid at the rate of time and one-half of the regular daily wage computed on the basis of 365 working-days per year, exclusive of allowances.

ART. 6, CLAUSE A. The company shall, upon request of the general chairman, meet a committee to deal with matters in dispute, such as wages, working conditions, grievances, etc., whether the foregoing be actual or alleged.

ART. 7, CLAUSE A. Telegraphers leaving the service of their own accord shall be required to give the company 15 days' previous notice in writing, and acknowledgment of the receipt of such notice shall be sent without delay, by the proper authority.

CLAUSE B. The company shall be required, in the event of reduction in staff, to give 15 days' previous notice in writing, or 15 days' wages inclusive of all allowances in lieu thereof.

CLAUSE D. No telegrapher shall be suspended or discharged, except for investigation, and any telegrapher who has been suspended or discharged and disproving the charge(s) made against him, shall be reinstated without prejudice, and shall be reimbursed for all loss of pay.

CLAUSE E. A telegrapher leaving the service shall, upon application, be furnished with a certificate by the company, stating length of service, capacity in which employed, and if desired by the telegrapher, a recommendation as to character and ability, and such certificate shall be available to the telegrapher with his settlement check and within a reasonable time.

ART. 8. *Wage scale and allowances.* CLAUSE A. First year, $70 per month; second year, $75 per month; third year, $85 per month; fourth year, $95 per month; fifth year, $105 per month; sixth year, $115 per month.

CLAUSE B. In addition to the above scale, an allowance of $40 per month shall be paid where maintenance is not furnished.

CLAUSE C. Full maintenance allowance shall be paid in all cases where a coast station telegrapher has been temporarily assigned to ship service for a period of two weeks or less.

CLAUSE D. In addition to the above scale and allowances, a bonus of $15 per month shall be payable to regularly appointed officers in charge of coast stations, and a bonus of $10 per month shall be payable to officers in charge of ship stations carrying two or more telegraphers.

CLAUSE E. Regularly appointed officers in charge of coast stations shall suffer no loss of bonus through absence on regular vacations but such bonus shall not be payable to substitutes.

CLAUSE F. In the event of a regularly appointed officer in charge being on leave of absence other than vacation, the bonus payable to his position shall be paid to the telegrapher performing the duties of officer in charge.

CLAUSE G. All uniform trimmings shall be supplied by the company free of charge to wireless officers serving on ships where uniforms are required to be worn.

ART. 9, CLAUSE A. Fuel shall be supplied by the company in accordance with actual requirements for operating individual stations other than dwellings, it being understood that the foregoing shall not apply to coast stations where maintenance allowance is not paid.

CLAUSE B. The company shall supply light for all stations and dwellings attached thereto.

CLAUSE C. The company shall pay all taxes on station property and buildings.

CLAUSE D. Rentals on dwellings shall not be more than $9 per month.

CLAUSE E. The company shall not be held liable for loss by fire or through other causes, to telegraphers' personal property in stations or dwellings.

ART. 10, CLAUSE A. Wages shall commence from and shall include the date upon which the telegrapher is engaged by the company, which date of engagement shall mean the day upon which the telegrapher receives written instructions to proceed and does proceed to move to assume the duties to which he has been appointed.

CLAUSE B. Checks in payment of wages shall be available to all telegraphers as soon as possible after the first of the month following that for which payment is due and not later than the 15th.

CLAUSE D. A ship's telegrapher whose vessel is laid up at a point away from his divisional headquarters, and there being no further work available for said telegrapher, necessitating his being laid off, he shall be entitled to wages, transportation, and expenses until his return to his divisional headquarters.

ART. 11, CLAUSE A. In all cases of transfer, sufficient funds shall be advanced to cover reasonable expenses incurred, and telegraphers traveling upon the company's service shall be entitled to first-class rail and steamship fare, hotel accommodation, and board.

CLAUSE B. Vouchers (where procurable) shall be obtained and shall be filed with the company when statements of expenses are submitted.

CLAUSE C. Orders of transfer shall be in writing and may be communicated by message, letter, or transfer cards.

CLAUSE D. No telegrapher shall be transferred unjustly or unfairly, and married men when being transferred on the initiative of the company shall, immediately prior to transfer date, and without monetary loss to themselves, be freed from station (coast station) duty for four days.

ART. 12, CLAUSE A. The company undertakes to insert in its future agreements with shipowners, for the provision of telegraphers' service, a clause providing that the shipowners shall furnish wireless officers with medical and other attendance and comfortable sleeping accommodations in accordance with the terms of the ship's articles, and where more than one wireless officer is employed, to provide sleeping accommodations for them in a suitable room separate from the wireless cabin.

CLAUSE B. The telegrapher aboard ship shall hold the title "wireless officer."

ART. 13, Clause A. No deduction from wages or allowances shall be made where a telegrapher is traveling on the company's service.

CLAUSE B. In the case of transfer of a telegrapher from one station to another, traveling expenses shall be paid in lieu of maintenance allowance.

ART. 14, CLAUSE B. It is understood and agreed that this agreement does not apply to the coast stations in Newfoundland operated by the company under contract with the Newfoundland Government, and that any arrangement governing the wages and conditions of employment on such stations shall be in the nature of a supplementary agreement.

Mineral Water Workers—New York City

THE agreement of the Mineral Water Workers' Union, Local 311 of New York City, expiring March 15, 1926, outlined on page 63 of the Labor Review, June, 1925, has been renewed for another year with the addition of the following paragraph:

Each employer guarantees 52 weeks' employment to every worker in his shop.

Retail Clerks—Chicago

LOCAL No. 195 of the Retail Clerks' International Protective Association has made two agreements with retail men's stores in the west side of Chicago, effective for two years from April 1, 1926. The first of these, with the Cook County Merchants' Association, reads as follows:

1. (*a*) That all sales people with the exception of a son or daughter of an employer, employed in the stores owned and controlled by the party of the first part shall be members in good standing of the Retail Clerks' Association, Local 195.

(*b*) All temporary sales people must first apply to the association for a working card, which will be issued for the first two weeks' duration without cost, after which time said employee must become a member of Local 195, and all extra sales people must carry a special working card which is issued by the association.

(*c*) It is understood and agreed that whenever party of the first part shall need additional help, either permanent or temporary, that the association be given the preference to furnish such help as required. It is further understood that sales people sent by the association for vacant positions must be satisfactory to the party of the first part within two weeks. If the association fails to furnish the required help within three days, the party of the first part may employ sales people from other sources.

2. (*a*) The following schedule of hours shall be adopted: Stores open 8.30 a. m. and close Monday 6 p. m., Tuesday close 9 p. m., Wednesday close 6 p. m., Thursday close 9 p. m., Friday close 6 p. m., Saturday close 10 p. m., Sunday close 1 p. m. The following legal holidays, Decoration Day, Labor Day, and Thanksgiving Day, shall close the same as Sunday. The same schedule of 54 hours shall be mutually arranged where stores are closed on Sundays and holidays. Sales people shall be off one full day each week, this day to be agreed upon by the employer and employee.

(*b*) In case of emergency when overtime work is required, all overtime must be approved by the association or its representative and compensation shall be one time and a half based on salary received.

(*c*) All sales people shall be entitled to one hour noon lunch and one hour for dinner when working evenings. Sales people must be in their respective positions and ready for business by 8.30 a. m., and no employee shall remain on duty after specified working hours unless detained by unfinished sales.

3. It is understood and agreed that employees of the party of the first part shall be off and receive full pay on the following legal holidays: New Year's and Fourth of July. It is further understood and agreed that stores may be opened evenings one week before Christmas, and sales people must be compensated for same if working those evenings.

4. (*a*) No employee engaged in the selling of merchandise shall receive less than the minimum of $45 per week in clothing and $40 shall be the minimum wage in the men's furnishings and shoe departments, except apprentices. Any sales person engaged in a managing or buying position that is actively engaged in selling of merchandise or waiting on trade must also become a member of this association. His salary may be mutually agreed upon between the employer and himself.

(*c*) All sales people engaged in the business less than 18 months shall be classed as apprentices and their wages will be optional to the employer and employee for a period of the first 18 months' experience and the minimum wage scale of a salesman thereafter. Apprentices shall be limited to not more than one apprentice for every two salesmen in each store, two to each six salesmen in each store, and a proportional number thereafter.

5. No employee of the party of the first part shall suffer any reduction of wages or commission through the operation or because of the adoption of this agreement. It is also agreed that sales people of the party of the first part shall receive at least one week's vacation with full pay when in present employment for one year or more.

6. It is understood and agreed that sales people of the party of the first part shall not be requested nor required to do porter work of any description.

7. Any difficulty that may arise, not covered by this agreement, which can not be adjusted by the representatives of the parties hereto shall be submitted to arbitration, consisting of an arbitration board of three on each side. Both of

the parties hereto shall agree upon a third party to act as arbitrator within three days after they have failed to adjust the difficulty. No lockout by the employer shall be instituted and no strike by the employees shall be engaged in pending decision of the arbitration.

8. It is agreed that upon signing this agreement by the party of the first part and with full compliance of all provision thereof that the association will furnish without cost the official store card of the Retail Clerks' International Protective Association, Local 195, to be displayed in the window. It is expressly understood and agreed that the business representative of the Retail Clerks' Association, Local 195, is to have the privilege of entering upon the premises, during business hours, of the party of the first part for the purpose of interviewing its employees, providing they are not occupied in waiting on trade.

9. This agreement and wage scale shall go into full force and effect upon signing of same, and shall remain in full force and effect until March 31, 1928, or until another agreement has been presented to the employer by the association.

It is further understood and agreed that any violation of this agreement will be sufficient cause to remove the store card furnished by the association without due notice.

The second agreement with the Maxwell Street Merchants' Association reads as follows, omitting articles 1 (*a*) (*b*), 4 (*c*), 5, 6, and the final paragraph, which are the same as articles 1 (*a*) (*b*), 7 8, 9, and final paragraph of the agreement with the Cook County Merchants' Association, above:

1. (*c*) The following schedule of hours shall be adopted where stores are opened Sunday: Fifty-four hours shall constitute a week's work, with one full day of rest each week. Work starts 8.30 a. m. on week days and 8 a. m. on Sunday. No employees shall remain on duty more than three evenings a week later than 9 p. m. and 6 p. m. on the rest of the evenings. Girls must not work more than 48 hours per week. Their schedule to be mutually agreed upon between employer and employee.

2. It is further understood and agreed that stores will close at 1 p. m. on the following legal holidays: Fourth of July, Christmas, and New Year's Day. It is further agreed that during the months of July and August stores will close at 6 p. m. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

3. Employees shall receive no less than a minimum wage scale of the following classifications: Salesmen, class 1, $45; class 2, $40; salesladies, class 1, $30; class 2, $20.

No employee shall get less than one week's vacation with full pay when in service one year or more.

4. (*a*) None of the sales people shall be required to wash windows or do porter work of any description.

(*b*) If party of the first part shall close stores on his own accord on religious holidays or for other reasons the employees must receive full pay for the time the store is closed.

Street Railways—Cincinnati & Dayton Traction Co.

A WAGE award by a board of arbitration in April, 1926, in a controversy between the receiver of the Cincinnati & Dayton Traction Co. and Division 738, Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees of America, omitting the preamble, reads as follows:

Effective February 1, 1926, the rate of wages for trainmen shall be as follows: Interurban division: First three months, 50 cents per hour; next nine months, 52 cents per hour; and thereafter, 54 cents per hour.

Wages for Hamilton city division and Dayton city division shall be as follows for two and one man cars: First three months, 48 cents per hour; next nine months, 50 cents per hour; and thereafter, 52 cents per hour. Helpers on freight cars shall receive 44½ cents per hour. Section 7 of the working agreement executed on the 1st day of February, 1925, shall stand without change, for the year beginning February 1, 1926.

Following this award an agreement between the two above-named parties was made May 18, 1926. Section 5 embodies the rates mentioned in the above award. Other important sections read as follows:

SECTION 1. This agreement shall cover all passenger and freight trainmen employed by the company who are now or who hereafter shall become members of the association, and no employee of the company, in any branch of its service, shall be discharged or discriminated against by reason of his membership in the association.

SEC. 2. The company, for itself, its successors, lessees, and assigns, agrees to fully recognize and treat with the association on all questions, grievances, and complaints that may arise between them. Grievances of individual employees shall first be taken up by the individual with the head of his department before becoming a complaint to the association. In the event of failure to adjust such grievance in this manner, it shall be taken up by the duly accredited officers of the company and the association, who shall attempt to adjust and settle same. If the case involves the suspension or dismissal of any employee, and he is not found sufficiently at fault to warrant such dismissal or suspension, he shall be reinstated in his former position and paid for all the time lost, in the event of failure to reach an amicable adjustment, the matter shall be submitted to arbitration as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 3. Grievances complained of shall be formally submitted to the company by the association and discussed by the accredited representatives of the company and the association. If they should fail to reach an agreement, then the grievance shall be submitted immediately to arbitration. One arbitrator shall be elected by the company and one by the association. If the two thus selected shall fail within five days to settle the matters in dispute, they shall forthwith select a third arbitrator. If the two arbitrators selected by the company and the association shall within five days fail to agree upon a third arbitrator, then one of the Federal judges of the southern district of Ohio shall select the third. The decision of any two of the arbitrators thus selected shall be final and binding upon both parties. If a third arbitrator is necessary, the company and the association will bear the expense of such equally.

SEC. 4. Ten hours shall constitute one day's work.

SEC. 6. All regular runs, working five hours or more, shall be rated as a day's work.

No work shall pay less than two hours.

SEC. 7. All extra men shall be guaranteed a minimum wage of $85 per calendar month, to be paid in semimonthly installments of $42.50 on each pay day: *Provided, however,* That any man missing a show-up shall forfeit one day's proportion of said monthly guaranty for the day on which the miss shall occur; and any man absent on account of sickness, leave of absence, or under suspension shall lose one day's proportion of said monthly guaranty for each day of absence or suspension. Men earning more than the guaranteed minimum of $85 per calendar month, or $42.50 per pay day, shall receive in full the amount which they earn.

SEC. 8. The seniority of all trainmen shall be determined from the date of their last employment with the company. There shall be a selection of runs at least every six months, on the first of April and the first of October of each year, such selection being made by the employees of the company successively, in accordance with their seniority, beginning with the oldest man in the service.

SEC. 9. Where any trainman accepts any other position with the company, he, after six months in said position, forfeits his seniority rights on the road.

SEC. 12. All regular crews shall be required to report 5 minutes before scheduled leaving time of cars, except that crews on late runs on the Hamilton city lines shall report 10 minutes before scheduled leaving time.

SEC. 13. Whenever regular motormen or conductors shall be required to take out extra runs from places other than their places of residence, or shall be required to take out regular runs which begin or end at a place other than their place of residence, they shall be paid for their deadhead time necessary to make such runs and return to their place of residence. Place of residence shall mean where regular run starts and finishes.

SEC. 14. The vestibule of all cars shall be made as nearly storm-proof as possible and heated, as governed by State law.

SEC. 15. Conductors on the city lines in Dayton and Hamilton shall not be required to pay in advance for tickets supplied for sale during the day, but shall make settlement daily for all tickets sold.

SEC. 16. Trainmen employed by the Cincinnati & Dayton Traction Co. shall be furnished free transportation on all lines operated by this company.

SEC. 21. All interurban cars operating in single units on interurban division shall have both a motorman and conductor, except in emergency.

AWARDS AND DECISIONS

Clothing Industry—Chicago

TWO decisions of the impartial chairman in the men's clothing industry, Chicago market, one relating to a change in machinery and the other to a nonunion worker doing union work, were made April 1, 1926. Both are printed practically in full.

Case No. 996

The union complains that the speed of the edge-stitching machines has been reduced by the use of a smaller pulley, causing a decrease in earnings, and requests that pulleys of the size used formerly be installed.

The petition is modified at the hearing to request an adjustment of rate to compensate for the loss in earnings.

It appears that the pulleys were standardized in 1922, some being increased in size while others were reduced. The result was a decrease in average earnings.

To counteract the effect on earnings a rate increase was put into effect. Subsequently earnings increased much beyond the level prevailing prior to the change in pulleys. In the fall of 1925 the pulleys were reduced in size to insure better work. Earnings have been affected, but, when the several adjustments since 1922 are taken into account, are still considerably better than they were prior to the first change in pulleys.

From the point of view of practice and the agreement the issue is clear—changes in work or in conditions that affect work must be accompanied by corresponding changes in rate. The firm has the option of adjusting the rate or restoring the conditions. In making this ruling the board would suggest that the price committee review the situation with reference primarily to what should be expected in the way of earnings and quality. It is clear that earnings advanced beyond what was expected when the first adjustment was made. Some of the advance may have been due to longer experience; some to excessive speeding. The size of the pulley may arbitrarily fix the limit of speed but it does not follow that the workers were warranted in attaining the maximum speed with the larger pulley. The firm is entitled to acceptable work. Reducing the size of the pulley is merely a device to compel the workers to stitch less rapidly in the expectation that they will do better work. It may well be that they should have stitched less rapidly with the larger pulley.

Case No. 999

The union complains that a position held formerly by a union worker was filled by a nonunion worker and without requisitioning the union. The union requests that the position be filled in accordance with the agreement.

The position is in the shortage department. The work consists of sorting and putting away ends from the cutting room. Some joker sewing has been done in connection with shortages. At the time the agreement was signed these people joined the union. The firm offered no objection but claims never to have regarded the work as within the jurisdiction of the union. On occasion nonunion boys have been employed without protest from the union. Recently a union girl quit and her place was filled with a nonunion worker.

From inquiry in the market the board finds that the work of receiving, sorting, and putting away ends from the cutting room is not generally performed by union people. The fact that people doing this work joined the union does not appear to be significant in view of the hiring of nonunion boys from time to time. The action of the firm is sustained.

Clothing Industry—Rochester

THE arbitrator in the Rochester clothing industry has recently decided three cases of discharge, the principal facts in the cases being as follows:

Case No. 2030, April 15, 1926

The union complains that the firm has discharged a worker without just cause and asks that he be reinstated with compensation for time lost. The contention of the union is that the worker was sick and had given the usual notice to the firm. The firm admits the receipt of proper notice, but contends that the worker was not taken back because of continual absence; they also submit a record of past absences. The arbitrator is obliged to rule that the proper notice having been given by the worker and accepted by the firm, the worker should have been returned to his position. If there were reasons for not wanting the worker because of his past actions, it should be treated in a different manner from that followed in this case. The arbitrator also would advise the worker that it is business to take proper care of his position. It is ordered that he be reinstated immediately with back pay.

Case No. 2031, April 15, 1926

The evidence in the case, agreed to by both sides, was that the worker was out sick some weeks ago and notified the firm to this effect; later, and before returning to work, her mother became sick and she notified the firm again. It is also claimed by the union that a representative of the firm called at the house and told her that she would have her job back when she was well. On returning to work this week she was told that there was no room. The firm's contention is that they had to put on other workers and that this worker was told to come in in a couple of days and they would try to put her on. On again inquiring for her position, she was told the firm would do the best they could but would not guarantee anything. After weighing all of the evidence, and taking into consideration that the worker has been in the employ of the firm for the past 11 years, and that she had reason to rely on her position being open on her return, it is the opinion of the arbitrator that justice requires that the firm arrange to reinstate the worker by Monday, April 19. It is so ordered.

Case No. 2041, April 23, 1926

The evidence in this case discloses a peculiar situation. While the union's claim is that the firm discharged the worker, on the other hand the firm contends that they had not discharged her, it having been the insistent demand of the shop chairman that she be let out. In general, the testimony discloses the following facts, admitted by both sides: The worker was hired temporarily for a sick worker's job, and on the return of the latter the worker in question was transferred to another job and became a permanent worker. Some time later the shop chairman complained about an overcrowded section, and on his continual insistance for several weeks the firm agreed in good faith with the shop chairman and his request for discharge was complied with. The arbitrator is acquainted with the general rules under the agreement, and knows that there are arrangements made with shop chairmen that carry out the principles of the agreement, that are proper and binding. However, it can not be maintained that any arrangement at all can be made, as some might have the effect of nullifying the agreement. It must be admitted that the agreement is for the protection of the workers as well as the firms, and here comes a worker who testifies that she was not a party to or acquainted with any arrangements for her discharge. The arbitrator feels it his duty to maintain the rights of this worker as she did nothing wrong, and to decide that the shop chairman had no authority to arrange for her discharge. It is directed that she be reinstated immediately and as the good faith of the firm is not in question, it is directed that the union pay her back pay because of the misjudgment of one of its officers.

Newspapers—Los Angeles

IN THE LABOR REVIEW for April, 1926, pages 84–86, were printed extracts from an agreement made between Local No. 174 of the International Typographical Union and three newspapers in the city of Los Angeles, December 12, 1925. The form and contents of the agreement were drawn up by a board of arbitration, consisting of Burt A. Heinly, D. G. Keeler, Francis Drake, John F. Dalton, and B. P. Guild.

This decision, which was not at hand at the time the extracts from the agreement were printed in the April LABOR REVIEW, is unique in that it is signed by all members of the board, but is also accompanied by a dissenting opinion signed by the two arbitrators representing the newspapers, and contains an explanatory statement signed by the two arbitrators representing the union.

The award grew out of an arbitration agreement made March 26, 1924, to cover a period of three years from April 1, 1924, in which it was agreed that differences should be settled by conciliation or, as a last resort, by arbitration. The agreement also provided that either party desiring changes in it could make demand for the changes desired under certain conditions, the question to be referred if necessary to a board of arbitration, to consist of two members selected by the publishers, two by the union, and a fifth selected by these four.

On December 6, 1924, the union filed notice of a desire to change certain provisions in the agreement. The publishers filed a counter-proposal. Conciliation proceedings began December 26, 1924. The union demanded arbitration March 30, 1925. The fifth member of the board was selected September 26, 1925. Twenty-two sessions were held between November 12 and December 8, 1925, and the decision of the board was made December 12, 1925.

The wage scale as provided in the agreement called for $48.50 per week. The union desired to increase this to $55.20 per week and the publishers to reduce it to $45.50. The chairman placed the wage scale at $51.30. In doing so he said in part:

> As the principal issue involved, a large mass of testimony was introduced on this subject by both sides. The question of reduction of wages may be dismissed with few words by the chairman. Irrespective of the mind of the board, neither the union nor the publishers in their presentation seemed to consider it a likely decision and the principal question at issue appeared the retention of the wage scale as at present or the possibility of increase.
>
> With the present knowledge of scientific rate fixing available, the chairman has due cognizance that most of it is as shifting sand. Arguments for increase can be met with equally logical negatives, and hardly a table of statistics exists that can not be metamorphosed into the opposite of what its original compiler may have intended.
>
> A large factor of the present controversy is decided when determination has been made of the base of starting of the various statistics bearing on wages, living conditions, food supply, etc., ad infinitum. The publishers have maintained that this base should be predicated upon a period following the war—i. e., 1918–1920; the union with equal fervor has held that the proper application of many of the statistics should date from 1913–14. In the first instance, there has been a downward movement of the curve to what at least appears for the past year to be a normal condition. In the second instance the curve remains at a much higher level than in 1914.
>
> Let it be willed as we may, and figure as we will, the human mind goes back, and will go back for the life of the present generation, to that well-regulated period of 1914, "just before the war." There are few economic discussions on subjects of this character which do not revert to this period to find their starting

point. The mind of the common citizen in this day has let escape him the trend of rates and prices in 1920 but finds no difficulty in establishing present economic conditions by comparison with the year just preceding the cataclysm. The chairman accepts 1914 as at least a starting point on many of the economic phases of this subject.

The chairman can not admit of the justice of granting the wage increase in full amount asked by the union. In 1914 the wage scale was $29. That this appears to have been a satisfactory rate to publishers and union alike in that normal period is shown by the fact that it continued in effect from 1914 (or earlier, the record does not state) to January, 1917, and then from 1917 to date increases have been made at shorter intervals. Taking 100 as the index number for the cost of living in Los Angeles in 1914, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reports cost of living in Los Angeles in June, 1925, at 176.9, or an increase of 76.9. In the same proportion of increase, the corresponding 1914 wage of $29 would not be $48.50 but would be increased to $51.30.

The union in justifying its demand for increase submitted Table 9 showing the Group 1 cities of the United States (as defined and used in standard comparisons by the United States Census) with 1914 and 1925 rates of pay in these cities; also a weighted average of 96.8 increase. The chairman disregards the weighted increase in this table, but a general average of 1925 wage scales for the 12 cities, including Los Angeles, amounts to $51.33 per week.

In attempting to determine a just basis of wage scale for this agreement, the chairman takes into consideration the foregoing facts and conditions. He fixes as the minimum wage scale of journeymen the sum of $8.55 or $51.30 per 45-hour week. This serves as the base for other wage changes that show in the agreement.

The board has had before it, for important decision, the determination of whether on morning papers the day scale for day work should prevail as demanded by the publishers or that the night scale for such work should continue to govern as demanded by the union. It appears to the chairman that this is a condition of work which should have been amicably settled by his colleagues who are familiar by long experience with the situation, which section 6 governs. A deadlock existed. As in the case of the wage scale, the chair was required to steer by his own compass. He learned that the rule of night-time scale for day-time work on morning papers has long prevailed. Nevertheless, to the outsider, this appears entirely incongruous, when, in the same section of the 1924 agreement there appears the provision "night work on evening papers to be at the night scale." It is a poor rule that can not work both ways. With the conflicting information at hand, the chairman could not accurately gauge the import of a decision adverse to a custom of long standing. In view of all circumstances, however, he cast his ballot with the publishers, despite the vigorous protest of union representatives.

On other sections of the agreement the chairman has freely voted for or against union or publisher as he deemed right and proper. In several instances where from the variance of the sections and the discussion, he was at a loss to determine the equity, he has made custom his guide and found recourse to parallel sections in the present agreement.

In arriving at a decision, there has been little unanimity on the part of the board. The chairman has been required to decide all major questions or to force alternatives to both union and publisher proposals. The chairman has had no disposition to escape responsibility and this he is prepared to assume in full measure whenever and wherever he was called upon to act. From this it will be evident that the included decision as a whole receives the approval of neither of the factions. The factional differences existed as a condition long antedating these proceedings and it is too much to expect that these differences could be shed as a cloak when the mantle of arbitrator was donned. In the light of this condition, indeed, the chairman desires to express his appreciation of that forbearance which was shown not only by colleagues to each other but to himself in the difficult and unwelcome rôle he was called upon to fill. The opinion is signed by all the members of the board in compliance with the terms of the arbitration agreement of April 1, 1924, and by reason of separate agreement between the chairman and his colleagues dated October 6, and being to the same end.

The "discussion" of the chairman is followed by the decision, which is a detailed account of the changes made in the former agreement. The first and last paragraphs read as follows:

Referring to the union's form of proposal and the publishers' form of proposal as submitted to this board of arbitration and in accord with the joint letter of

the chairman of the special standing committee, American Newspaper Publishers' Association, and the president of the International Typographical Union, hereinafter called the joint letter, this board, with the publishers' counterproposal as the basis, makes its decision as follows:

[Decision.]

The form of agreement in accord with the above findings is attached hereto and made a part hereof, and the parties at interest are instructed to sign and execute said agreement.

Of the sections (18–23) relating to apprentices and printed in the April LABOR REVIEW, sections 18 and 20 were taken from the publishers' proposal, sections 21, 22, and 23 from the union's proposal, and section 19 is the same in the proposals of both parties.

The dissenting opinion of the employers' representatives is as follows:

Neither of the undersigned, representing the newspapers on the board of arbitration, moved nor seconded, and are not in favor of, and did not vote for the attached decision.

In the opinion of the publishers' representatives, the attached decision is not in accord with the facts and evidence brought out in the proceedings.

We hold that the chairman's method of multiplying the Bureau of Labor Statistics index number in 1925, with the wage paid in 1914, and adding the result to the 1914 scale is not an equitable way to arrive at a wage for 1925, as the index number for 1925, is based on the index number 100 in 1914, and is the cost of living while the scale paid in 1914 was not merely the cost of living, but the cost of living plus a saving and proved to have been a saving wage, as it was in effect for three years, 1914, 1915, and 1916, without any demands for increase from the typographical union until just prior to 1917.

We further hold that a comparison of scales in cities limited to Group 1, which includes New York and Chicago, is not a fair method of arriving at a scale for Los Angeles.

We also hold that the chairman's attitude of ignoring a wage settlement by conciliation in March, 1924, is incorrect, as this was a satisfactory settlement to the union at that time, and the increase granted in the attached decision is entirely unwarranted, as there has been a slight downward trend in the cost of living since March, 1924, in Los Angeles.

The explanatory statement of the employees' representatives is as follows:

At an informal meeting of the members of the board of arbitration, held prior to its first regular meeting, all the members signed the following agreement, which had been prepared by the chairman:

"Desiring that the first arbitration shall result in a unanimous report as provided in the arbitration agreement, when three members of the board have come to a full agreement as to its findings, I am willing and will sign the agreement without any further discussion, dispute, or demand for more time or changes as set up in section 5 of arbitration agreement."

The member of the board who afterward was elected secretary asked the chairman, in the presence of the entire board, if the purpose of the foregoing agreement was to prevent the submission of a minority or "rump" report. He replied that such was his purpose.

At the conclusion of the open hearings the board went into executive session. In almost every instance the vote of the board was three to two on each question at issue, the chairman of the board casting his vote against the representatives of the union on a majority of the disputed points. We have no criticism whatsoever as to the actions of the chairman; he would have been entirely within his rights had he voted to sustain every arbitrable proposition of the publishers and against every arbitrable proposition of the union vice versa.

Notwithstanding that their contentions were sustained by the affirmative vote of the chairman of the board in a majority of instances, the publishers' representatives emphatically declined to approve the award as a whole. They announced that while they would attach their signatures to the decision upon the affirmative votes of three members of the board, they would follow such action with the submission of a minority report.

We are convinced that the representatives of the publishers voted against adopting the award in the hope that their negative votes would create the impression that the award in its entirety was satisfactory to the union. Could this erroneous impression be created, the gentleman who acted as counsel for the publishers in this city and who also is counsel for publishers in other cities would be in a position to cite the Los Angeles award to the disadvantage of the union elsewhere in pending or future wage scale adjustments.

This statement is written in order that the position of Los Angeles Typographical Union No. 174 may not be misinterpreted or misconstrued.

Newspapers—Washington, D. C.

AT THE expiration of the agreement of Typographical Union No. 101 with the newspaper publishers of Washington, November 11, 1925, the union asked for an increase in wage rates which the publishers at first refused altogether, though later they offered an increase of 30 cents a day. Finally they offered to arbitrate the matter, suggesting that Justice Hitz, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, be the arbitrator. The union accepted him.

Justice Hitz on May 12 rendered an award modifying the existing contract in a few respects, granting in the main the requests of the union—$9 per day and $10 per night, increasing the day rate by $1.30 and the night rate by $1.60, the number of hours to remain at seven, Washington's birthday added to the list of recognized holidays, and the provision allowing an office to work its force up to four hours a week at a single price removed. The remaining clauses in the award are as follows:

1. The printers' proposal that section 2 of the existing contract relative to rates for day work, night work, and day and night work and day rate on Sunday afternoon or evening papers, be changed to the rates requested by the printers, is granted, and the amounts proposed by the printers shall be the scale of wages embodied in the new contract in effect on and after November 11, 1925.

2. The printers' proposal relative to linotype operators, when required to do mechanical work on typesetting machines other than operating the keyboard, is denied.

3. The publishers' proposal relative to any member of the union who, by reason of advanced years or other cause, may not be capable of producing an average day's work, etc. is granted, with the substitution of the "president of the union" in lieu of the "foreman of the office" as stated by the publishers proposal.

4. The printers' proposal that "if men are required to work at such time that the seven hours fall partly in the hours during which the day rate prevails and partly during the hours in which night rate obtains, they shall receive the night scale, except that, etc." is granted to take effect on and after May 24, 1926.

5. The publishers' proposal in regard to the same condition—namely, that "if men are required to work at such time that the eight hours fall partly in the hours during which the day rate prevails and partly during the hours in which the night rate obtains, etc."—is denied.

6. The publishers' request for no change in the provision governing in case of a recall after the men have left the office for the day, is granted.

11. It is the finding of the arbitrator that the contract should run for one year from November 11, 1925, except as otherwise provided herein.

13. Section 9 is to remain the same, dealing with journeymen, as it is in the present contract.

14. The printers' proposal to limit apprentices in the ratio of 1 to 10 journeymen with the further limitation that not more than five may be employed in any one office, is denied.

15. The printers' proposal under "(d)" paragraph of section 2, "sphere of work," relating to the third year of an apprentice, is granted, the publishers having agreed to it.

16. The change requested by the publishers under section 3 with regard to substitution of an eight for a seven hour day is denied.

17. The seale governing apprentices after the first year, referred to in section 4, shall remain as in the present contract without change either in day work or night work.

Railroads—Decisions of Railroad Labor Board

Discharge

IN DECISION No. 4164, May 6, 1926, the Railroad Labor Board rendered an opinion relative to four clerks discharged by the American Railway Express Co.

They were among six warehousemen at the Cincinnati agency whose positions had been abolished May 16, 1924, and who were now requesting restoration, as they had been denied the right to exercise their seniority rights over the junior employees.

The carrier accomplished the reduction in force by abolishing positions of employees oldest in age rather than laying off employees having the least seniority, on the theory that should the older employees be retained in the service they would be physically unable to perform their proportion of the work required of the curtailed force. The evidence in this case shows that prior to the force reduction the agent at Cincinnati had between 170 and 188 employees under his supervision, 82 of whom were warehousemen. Rule 24 reads:

"*Positions abolished.*—Employees whose positions are abolished may exercise their seniority rights over junior employees. Other employees affected may exercise their seniority in the same manner."

The carrier denies that any injustice has been done these employees or that any violation of a rule has occurred. It admits a citation of rule 24 but calls attention to the fact that such rule specified the exercise of seniority rights and asserts that the use of the term "seniority rights" as distinguished from "seniority" is intended to provide, per rules 28 and 4, the elements of fitness and ability as well as seniority. The carrier asserts that while these men possess seniority, they lack fitness and ability. Rules 28 and 4 read as follows:

"RULE 28. *Exercising seniority.*—The exercise of seniority in reductions of force or displacing junior employees provided for in this article is subject to the provisions of rule 4 of this article.

"RULE 4. *Promotion basis.*—Employees covered by these rules shall be in line for promotion. Promotion shall be based on seniority, fitness, and ability; fitness and ability being sufficient, seniority shall prevail; except, however, that the train messenger service and office seniority shall not be interchangeable. The seniority of each shall date from the date of the particular service in which the same shall be instituted; provided, however, that employees shall retain their seniority as accepted on roster of January 1, 1920.

"NOTE.—The word 'sufficient' is intended to more clearly establish the right of the senior employees to bid in a 'new position' or 'vacancy' where two or more employees have adequate 'fitness and ability.'"

Opinion.—The evidence presented shows that the four men involved were employed at a time when labor was scarce and that during normal times their age would probably have prevented their employment, all being over the age limit applying to new employees. However, their fitness and ability was not questioned during that period of their employment and no claim is made that any sudden change had taken place in their physical condition. The retention of these men as warehousemen for a period of over four years without questioning their ability to perform the duties of the positions establishes their fitness and ability to perform the duties ordinarily required of warehousemen at the Cincinnati agency. In the opinion of the board their dismissal is in violation of the rules governing reduction in forces.

Decision.—[Four men named], shall be restored to service with seniority unimpaired and compensated for wage loss sustained, less any amount earned in other employment.

Reclassification

A DISPUTE involving the reclassification and reduction in the rate of pay of 43 positions of agent-telegrapher and agent-telephoner was decided by the Railroad Labor Board in Decision No. 4119, April 29, 1926.

The facts were as follows: The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad discontinued telegraph service at several of its stations between March 1, 1924, and June 1, 1925, and created the position of agent or agent custodian in place of the former agent telegrapher or telephoner. The old rate ranged from 54 to 65 cents per hour. The new rate ranged from $60 to $75 a month.

The employees contended that this action of the carrier was in violation of the following rules of the agreement, that there had been no change in the duties and responsibilities of the position, and that the stations were not small nontelegraph, within the meaning of the term as used in the orders of the Labor Board. They asked that the earlier rates be restored and retroactive adjustment in the compensation of the employees affected be made.

RULE 1. The following rules and rates of pay shall apply to positions held by telegraphers, telephone operators (except switchboard operators), agents, agent-telegraphers, agent-telephoners, printer-operators, wire chiefs, towermen, levermen, tower and train directors, block operators, and staff men shown in wage scale, who shall be hereinafter considered telegraphers within the meaning of these rules.

RULE 10. (*a*) The entering of telegraphers in the positions occupied in the service or changing their classification or work shall not operate to establish a less favorable rate of pay or condition of employment than is herein established.

The carrier contended that the action was in accordance with the provisions of rule 2, as follows:

"RULE 2. When new positions are created, they will be added to the list covered by rule 1, and compensation will be arranged in conformity with positions of the same class shown in this schedule. The rates so made to be subject to revision by agreement, if appeal is made within 30 days."

The carrier further contends that a new position is created when telegraph service is removed and that such action constitutes a substantial change in the duties and responsibilities because the telegraphic duties are the main elements which cause a telegraph operator to be paid on a higher scale than an ordinary station employee; that the provisions of addendum No. 1 to supplement No. 13 must be considered in the application of rule 10, and that the action taken is fully in accordance with the interpretation contained in addendum No. 1; and that the only question involved in this dispute is the justness and reasonableness of the rates established for the reclassified positions.

Opinion.—The evidence in this case shows that positions designated as small nontelegraph agents are not included in the agreement between this carrier and its employees; therefore, the contention that a violation of this agreement has occurred can not be supported. It also appears that in the negotiations regarding this matter the carrier offered to establish a rate of 48 cents for each of these positions with the understanding that this amount might be jointly distributed, rating some of the positions at a lower rate and some at a higher rate, retroactive to the date of the change at each station. The carrier states in explanation of this offer that it was made in an effort to settle the dispute although it did not consider that many of the positions were entitled to the 48-cent rate. The board does not support the contention that the agent-telegrapher classification and rate of pay should be continued in effect and not changed until after conference and agreement with the committee, nor does it believe that a rate below the minimum established by decisions of this board for positions of small nontelegraph agents, 48 cents an hour, should be made effective unless it is done by agreement. The question of the proper rate of the reclassified position is one which is dependent upon the extent of the decrease in the duties and responsibilities of the position. The evidence submitted on this point is conflicting and should be the subject

of a joint investigation by the representatives of the parties for a sufficient period of time to develop the actual conditions.

Decision.—A rate of 48 cents an hour shall be established for each of these positions with retroactive adjustment in the compensation of the employees affected to the date the positions were reclassified. Parties shall confer and endeavor to agree on the proper rate that should be established for these positions. In the event an agreement can not be reached and it is necessary to resubmit the dispute to the Railroad Labor Board a joint check shall be made at each of the stations involved and a detailed report of the duties and responsibilities of each position with full information as to the extent such duties and responsibilities have been changed shall be submitted.

Seniority—Sleeping-Car Conductors

A CONTENTION relative to seniority was settled by the Railroad Labor Board in Decision No. 4159, May 5, 1926.

On May 1, 1925, the Pullman Co. took over the sleeping-car business of the Central of Georgia Railway Co. and with it three ticket collectors who were placed on the seniority roster of the company with the seniority date acquired by them on the Central of Georgia Railway.

Prior to May 1, 1925, the three collectors had been operating on line No. 2786 between Savannah and Atlanta, Ga., in addition to men in the pool of the Pullman Co. After that date two of the collectors operated regularly on the same line with a weekly relief, and eight Pullman conductors were operated on lines between Savannah and Montgomery via the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad and between Savannah and Macon on the Central of Georgia Railway.

On July 11, 1925, the carrier decided to pool all runs out of Savannah with 11 conductors on line No. 2784 between Savannah and Atlanta, line No. 2026–2032 between Savannah and Montgomery, and on line No. 3199 between Savannah and Macon.

The employees contend that under rule 7–b of the agreement the three former ticket collectors of the Central of Georgia Railway Co. should carry seniority date as of May 1, 1925, the date they were taken over by the Pullman Co., if they are permitted to operate on other than Central of Georgia Railway Co. territory. The rule referred to reads as follows:

"Where conductors are transferred to other districts to work on seasonal runs or other temporary assignments, they will retain their seniority in the district from which transferred and will rank as junior to all conductors in the district to which transferred."

The carrier contends that its action in granting the three ticket collectors in question the seniority rights they accrued in their similar positions with the Central of Georgia Railway Co. is in accordance with the long-established practice of the Pullman Co. in similar cases and with the understanding between the two companies when the sleeping-car service was taken over.

Decision.—Under the facts and circumstances surrounding this particular case, the position of the carrier is sustained.

Sunday Work

THE question of proper compensation of regularly assigned towermen on the terminal division for Sunday work performed at different hours from those constituting the regular week-day assignment was considered by the Railroad Labor Board April 29, 1926, in Decision No. 4120.

On the terminal division of the Boston & Maine Railroad, at Boston, there are six interlocking towers. The present agreement provides in article (*h*) that "terminal division towermen assigned to work seven days per week will be allowed 13 Sundays off per year."

In order to comply with this rule, it has been the practice for several years for some of the employees to work on Sundays in a different tower than they worked on week days, and in the case of several levermen to work different tricks on Sundays than on week days.

The question is: Should a leverman who works a different trick on Sundays than he does on week days, when all the hours of such different trick on Sundays are outside the assigned hours on week days, be paid punitive rates for all the time worked on Sundays?

The terminal division towermen object to working different hours and assignments Sundays than week days because they claim that such an arrangement places them under more strenuous and trying conditions as well as under greater responsibility Sundays than week days. The employees contend that this work should be done by the regular relief men or given to spare towermen; and further that Decision No. 2060 plainly decides that time worked Sundays outside the week-day spread should be paid for at punitive rates.

The carrier contends that pro-rata rates should be paid for all time worked on Sundays under the Sunday and holiday rule of Decision No. 757 [Labor Review, April, 1922, p. 123], which rule is a part of its agreement, and reads:

"RULE 8. *Sunday and holiday work.*—Employees will be excused from Sunday and holiday duties as much as the condition of business will permit.

"Time worked on Sundays and the following holidays—namely, New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Decoration Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas (provided when any of the above holidays fall on Sunday, the day observed by the station, Nation, or by proclamation shall be considered the holiday)—shall be paid for at the regular hourly rate when the entire number of hours constituting the regular week-day assignment are worked.

"When notified or called to work on Sundays and the above specified holidays a less number of hours than constitute a day's work within the limits of the regular week-day assignment, employees shall be paid a minimum allowance of two hours at overtime rate for two hours' work or less, and at the regular hourly rate after the second hour of each tour of duty. Time worked before or after the limits of the regular week-day assignment shall be paid for in accordance with overtime and call rules."

The carrier further contends that there is nothing in Decision No. 2060 that specifically deals with the method of paying for Sunday and holiday service where the entire number of hours constituting the regular week-day assignment are worked and no portion of such Sunday or holiday work is within the limits of the regular week-day assignment; that the second paragraph of rule 8 of Decision No. 757, which provides that time worked on Sundays shall be paid for at the regular hourly rate when the entire number of hours constituting the regular week-day assignment are worked, is applicable in this case; and that the penalty which the organization claims should be paid in this case is another good reason why there should be no rule which requires that this particular group of men should be relieved 13 Sundays a year.

Decision.—Claim of the employees is sustained.

Vacation Allowance

A CLAIM of the employees that the carrier should not deduct from the vacation allowance of employees the time they are absent from duty on Saturday afternoon when such employees lay off before the regular quitting time on that day was settled by the Railroad Labor Board in Decision No. 4162, May 6, 1926.

An employee in the office of the auditor of freight receipts of the Northern Pacific Railway Co. at St. Paul, on a Saturday, after working 2 hours and 35 minutes was excused from duty for the rest of the day and on that day his vacation allowance was debited with 5 hours and 25 minutes. He protested the deduction, contending that his vacation allowance should have been reduced by 1 hour and 55 minutes only, because the office in which he was employed did not require Saturday afternoon service.

The carrier states that it has been the practice since April, 1922, when an employee reports for duty on Saturday morning and is excused at his request before the regular closing time on that day, to charge against the vacation allowance of the employee the difference between the time actually worked and eight hours.

The carrier contends that the question of regulation of vacations is a managerial one, and when occasion arises which necessitates the establishment of a practice to cover the computation of time in connection with granting vacations, the carrier must necessarily lay down such principles as in its judgment will produce a fair and equitable result to both the employees and the carrier.

Decision.—Claim of the employees is sustained.

Pending Disputes Remanded

THE last decision of the Railroad Labor Board is No. 4197, dated May 12, 1926. In it the board makes the following statement and decision:

Statement.—Both houses of Congress have passed a bill which provides for the repeal of Title III of the transportation act, 1920, and substituted therefor another method of procedure for disposing of disputes between the carriers and their employees, and it is reasonably certain that the bill will become a law at an early date.

The Railroad Labor Board has on its calendar for consideration 426 dockets covering 468 disputes which have been properly filed in accordance with the provisions of the transportation act and docketed under the rules of the board, which can not be considered and disposed of in the usual manner. Of this number, 424 disputes are of a local nature affecting individual roads and their employees in one or more classes of service or possibly two or three railroads at one point; and 44 are of a general nature affecting large groups of employees in many or all classes of service, such as general requests for wage increases or general revision of rules governing working conditions.

Decision.—Under the circumstances above cited, the Railroad Labor Board hereby remands all pending disputes to the parties in interest for the purpose of further discussion and agreement, if possible.

If, for any reason, other pending disputes have not been included in the cases specified herein, such disputes are hereby remanded with the same force and effect as if they had been originally included.

The act here referred to was approved May 20, 1926, and was printed in the June Labor Review, pp. 33 to 41.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor in May, 1926

By Hugh L. Kerwin, Director of Conciliation

THE Secretary of Labor, through the Conciliation Service, exercised his good offices in connection with 71 labor disputes during May, 1926. These disputes affected a known total of 58,561 employees. The table following shows the name and location of the establishment or industry in which the dispute occurred, the nature of the dispute (whether strike or lockout or controversy not having reached strike or lockout stage), the craft or trade concerned, the cause of the dispute, its present status, the terms of settlement, the date of beginning and ending, and the number of workmen directly and indirectly affected.

On June 1, 1926, there were 49 strikes before the department for settlement and, in addition, 13 controversies which had not reached the strike stage. Total number of cases pending, 62.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS CONCILIATION SERVICE, MAY, 1926

Company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craft concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status. Terms of settlement	Duration		Men involved	
					Beginning	Ending	Directly	Indirectly
					1926	1926		
Plumbers, Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Strike	Building	Asked $1 per day increase	Adjusted. Allowed $1 day increase; $10 per day.	May 1	May 4	100	
Plasterers, Columbus, Ohio	Controversy	do	do	Adjusted. Allowed 50 cents per day increase.	May 3	May 3	90	
Contract shops, Erie, Pa	Strike	Electrical work	do	Adjusted. Allowed $1 per day increase	May 1	May 29	75	100
Carpenters, Philadelphia, Pa	do	Building	Asked $1.25 per hour—12½-cent increase.	Adjusted. Allowed 12½ cents per hour increase.	do	May 15	900	8,100
Arrow Manufacturing Co., New York City.	do	Paper-box work	Organization dispute	Unable to adjust. Mediation not desired.	Mar. 3	May 11	38	20
H. D. Bellins Hat Co., New York City.	do	Hat making	Distribution of work by foreman.	Pending	May 5		22	60
Fishermen, Pittsburg, Calif.	do	Fishing industry	Price of fish	do	(1)		500	
Painters, St. Louis, Mo	do	Building	Wages	Adjusted. Allowed 80 cents per day increase—$10.80.	May 1	May 10	1,800	
Carpenters, South Bend, Ind	do	do	Asked 10 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Returned; submitted to arbitration.	do	May 8	450	
Ohio Power & Light Co., Akron, Ohio.	do	Traction	Wages and working conditions.	Adjusted. Returned; accept former rates.	May 2	May 22	800	200
Zolo Bros., Boston, Mass	do	Clothing industry	Piecework system	Adjusted. Returned; conditions adjusted.	Apr. 27	Apr. 30	15	
County Builders Association, Beaver County, Pa.	do	Bricklaying	Asked 12½ cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Returned; increase allowed	May 1	May 8	150	
Montgomery and Delaware Counties, Pa.	Controversy	Carpenter work	Asked wage increase	do	(1)	May 15	(1)	
William Provost, jr., contractor, Chester, Pa.	Strike	do	do	Pending	(1)		50	
Building Association, Charleston, W. Va.	do	Building trades	Association demanded decrease.	do	May 1		450	
Teamsters, Hammond, Ind	Controversy	Teaming	Asked 5 cents per hour increase.	do	May 5		150	700
Federal Baking Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.	do	Baking trade	(1)	do	(1)		(1)	
Kelly Silk Mills, Scranton, Pa	Strike	Textile	Wage cut of 2½ cents per yard.	Unclassified. Other workers employed	May 5	May 6	8	
Structural-iron workers, Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Building	Asked $1.50 per hour. Adjusted.	Allowed $1.37½ per hour	(1)	May 17	600	200
Keiser Co., Pottstown, Pa	do	Carpentering	Wage increase	Adjusted. Allowed $1 per hour—10 cents per hour increase.	(1)	(1)	50	
Structural-iron workers, Des Moines, Iowa.	do	Building	do	Adjusted. Two-year contract with ascending scale of wages.	Apr. 1	May 5	60	2,500
Thos. Monyhan Co., Indianapolis, Ind.	do	Bricklaying and engineering.	Wages and agreement	Adjusted. Returned pending arbitration.	do	May 7	15	200
Tivoli Theater, Indianapolis, Ind	Controversy	Sheet-metal work	Nonunion labor	Adjusted. Union sheet-metal men employed.	Apr. 19	May 14	1	40

[1] Not reported.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS CONCILIATION SERVICE, MAY, 1926—Contd.

Company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craft concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status. Terms of settlement	Duration		Men involved	
					Beginning	Ending	Directly	Indirectly
					1926	1926		
Pierce Construction Co., Indianapolis, Ind.	Strike	Building	Nonunion hoisting engineers.	Adjusted. Union men employed; scale paid.	Apr. 1	May	1	50
Arthur Reed, Indianapolis, Ind	do	do	Wages and agreement	Adjusted. Returned to work pending arbitration.	do	May 8	17	60
Painters, Wilmington, Del	do	do	Asked 10 cents per hour increase.	Pending	(1)		140	
15 restaurants, Wilmington, Del	do	Waiters and cooks	Wages and hours	Adjusted. 10 hours for 6 days; overtime for Sunday.	May 10	May 14	130	
Carpenters, New London, Conn	do	Building	Asked 15 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Returned; demands granted	May 5	May 11	200	
Edward Bloom Co., New London, Conn.	do	Silk textiles	Asked 2½ cents per yard increase.	Pending	Apr. 12		340	
Barbers, Buffalo, N. Y	do	Barbering	Asked $3 per week increase	Adjusted. Increase allowed and new agreement.	May 3	May 8	510	
Plumbers and steamfitters, Lockport, N. Y.	do	Building	Asked 25 per cent increase—$2 per day.	Adjusted. Increase of $1 per day allowed.	May 1	May 24	20	
Mascot Stove Manufacturing Co., Chattanooga, Tenn.	do	Stove mounting	Working conditions	Unable to adjust. Negotiation refused	Apr. 27	May 14	10	65
Sheet-metal workers, Portsmouth, Ohio.	do	Building	(1)	Adjusted. Terms not reported	(1)	May 12	10	10
Bricklayers, Providence, R. I	do	do	Asked $1.50 per hour	Adjusted. Allowed $1.50 per hour	May 27	May 28	350	600
Carpenters, Bridgeport, Conn	do	do	(1)	Pending	(1)		(1)	
James Theater, Akron, Ohio	do	Projection	(1)	Unclassified. Settled before commissioner's arrival.	May 8	May 10		
Raritan Copper Co., Perth Amboy, N. J.	do	Copper work	Asked 10 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Allowed 5 cents per hour increase.	May 14	May 16	1,200	50
Sheet-metal workers, Indianapolis, Ind.	do	Building	do	Adjusted. Scale beginning with 2½ cents per hour increase.	Apr. 1	May 11	300	
Lumberman Building, Indianapolis, Ind.	Threatened strike.	do	Proposed use of nonunion hoisting engineers.	Adjusted. Union engineers employed	Apr. 8	Apr. 10	75	100
Building trades, Indianapolis, Ind.	Strike	do	do	do	May 4	May 11		
Estate Stove Co., Hamilton, Ohio	do	Stove mounting	Jurisdictional work given to nonunion workers.	Pending	May 19		31	
National Enameling & Stamping Co., Granite City, Ill.	Strike	Enameling	Open shop declared	Unclassified	(1)	May 17	450	50
Plumbers, New Brunswick, N. J	do	Building	Asked $2 per day increase	Adjusted. Allowed $2 per day increase—$12.	(1)	May 18	75	
Building trades, Zanesville, Ohio	do	do	Asked 10 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Allowed 10 cents per hour increase and closed shop.	May 13	May 20	35	5
Gill-net fishermen, Astoria, Oreg	do	Fishing industry	Asked 14 cents per pound	Unclassified. Allowed 13½ cents per pound before commissioner's arrival.	May 1	May 15	2,500	
Tug firemen, Buffalo, N. Y	do	Firemen	Asked $10 per month increase.	Pending	April	June 10	75	2,000

Painters and decorators, Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Building	Asked 12½ cents per hour increase.	Unclassified. Increase allowed; mediation not required.	(1)	May 28	700	-------
Carpenters, Los Angeles, Calif.	Controversy	do	Demand closed shop; carpenters refuse to work with nonunion men.	Pending	May 20	-------	(1)	-------
Red-top cabs, Jersey City, N. J.	Strike	Taxi drivers	Hours and wages	Adjusted. Contract; 10-hour day; 12 hours on Saturday, Sunday, and holidays.	May 18	May 29	20	-------
Tiger Taxi Co., Jersey City, N. J.	do	do	do	do	do	do	55	-------
Structural-iron workers, Allentown, Pa.	do	Building	(1)	Pending	(1)	-------	(1)	-------
Plasterers, Toledo, Ohio	do	do	Asked $14 per day	Adjusted. Allowed $12.50 till Nov. 1; then $13.	May 4	May 21	200	-------
Commodore Peary Hotel, Toledo, Ohio.	do	do	Wages; violation shop rules.	Unable to adjust	Apr. 22	-------	29	11
O'Neill Machine Co., Toledo, Ohio.	do	Machinists	Asked 12 per cent increase; 79 cents per hour.	do	May 14	-------	43	-------
R. G. Sullivan (Inc.), Manchester, N. H.	Threatened strike.	Cigar industry	Asked $1.50 per thousand	Adjusted. Terms not reported	May 18	June 10	1,184	416
Three plants in fire-proofing industry, Perth Amboy, N. J.	Strike	Fireproof materials	Asked 10 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted. Slight increases allowed with scale.	do	June 4	400	25
Brick-making industry, Dutchess Junction, N. Y.	do	Brick making	Asked 50 cents per day increase.	Adjusted. Returned; no change	do	May 25	(1)	-------
Merchants' National Bank, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	Controversy	Sheet-metal and carpenter work.	Jurisdiction of hollow-metal door work.	Adjusted. Satisfactory agreement with ironworkers.	May 15	June 4	6	200
Plumbers, Zanesville, Ohio	Strike	Building	Wage controversy	Pending	May 13	-------	25	5
Kurtz Furniture Co., Fullerton, Pa.	Controversy	Furniture	Alleged lack of cooperation by union employees.	Adjusted. Terms not reported	May 21	June 4	(1)	-------
Steam fitters, Indianapolis, Ind.	do	Building	Wage negotiations	Adjusted. Renewed 1925 wage scale	Jan. 1	May 1	200	-------
Hod carriers and electric workers, Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa.	Strike	do	do	Unclassified. Increases allowed before commissioner's arrival.	May 12	May 26	67	15
Ironworkers, Cedar Rapids, Iowa	do	do	Asked $1.25 per hour	Adjusted. Terms not reported	Jan. 1	June 5	22	1,500
Tile setters and helpers, Kansas City, Mo.	do	do	Asked $1 per day increase	Pending	May 8	-------	(1)	-------
Carpenters, Washington, D. C.	Controversy	do	do	Adjusted. Allowed 50 cents per day increase; $10 per day beginning Aug. 1, 1926.	Mar. 15	June 1	5,600	18,000
Lazarus Building, Columbus, Ohio.	Strike	do	Nonunion labor	Adjusted. Union labor employed except for electrical work.	May 25	May 28	250	-------
Hod carriers and laborers, Hartford, Conn.	do	do	Asked 80 cents per day increase; $8.	Adjusted. Returned; no increase	May 20	June 2	550	-------
Dow Manufacturing Co., Waukegan, Ill.	do	Carpenter work	Asked 5 cents per hour increase.	Unclassified. Increase granted before commissioner's arrival.	do	May 25	65	-------
Silesia Mills, North Chelmsford, Mass.	do	Weaving cotton textiles.	Asked 5 cents per yard increase.	Unclassified. Returned with small increases.	May 26	June 1	60	-------
Natural Bloom Cigar Co., New York City.	do	Cigar making	Asked 10 per cent increase	Pending. No result from conferences	May 15	-------	350	-------
Barbers, New York City	do	Barber trade	Wages, hours, and conditions.	do	May 24	-------	700	-------
Total							23,279	35,282

[1] Not reported.

IMMIGRATION

Statistics of Immigration for April, 1926

By J. J. Kunna, Chief Statistician United States Bureau of Immigration

THE figures for April, 1926, show 50,957 aliens (33,400 immigrant and 17,557 nonimmigrant) admitted and 15,769 (4,989 emigrant and 10,780 nonemigrant) departed. The net increase for the month in the alien population of the United States was 35,188, which is nearly 15,000 above the average increase for the preceding nine months of the current fiscal year.

Nearly one-half, or 16,278, of the immigrant aliens admitted in April came from countries on the Western Hemisphere, Canada, with 9,047, and Mexico, with 6,316, sending by far the largest numbers. Europe sent 16,712 immigrants this month, and about two-thirds of these came from Great Britain and Ireland and Germany, the former contributing 5,609 and the latter 5,540. With the exception of Sweden, which sent 1,180 of the April immigrants, the other countries furnished less than 800 each this month.

New York State continues to lead all others as the settling ground of immigration, 7,946, or nearly 25 per cent of the total number of immigrant aliens admitted in April, giving that State as their intended future permanent residence. The other States receiving large numbers of the April immigrants were Texas (4,800), Michigan (3,966), Massachusetts (2,830), Illinois (2,093), Pennsylvania (1,824), New Jersey (1,671) and California (1,595). Eighty per cent of the total immigration this month was destined to these eight States.

Of the 4,989 emigrant aliens leaving the United States in April, 3,694 departed for intended future permanent residence in Europe; 828 left for countries in America; 442 went to Asia; and 25 to Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands.

In April, 1,470 aliens were debarred from entering the United States, but only 186 (180 males and 6 females) were rejected at the seaports, the remaining 1,284 aliens having been refused admission at the Canadian or Mexican borderland stations. Most of the aliens debarred at the seaports were stowaways and seamen seeking permanent admission to the United States without immigration visas.

In April, 1,052 undesirable aliens were deported from the United States for various causes under the general immigration laws. This is the largest number ever deported during any one month and is an increase of 12 per cent over the preceding month when 938 aliens were sent out of the country. Mexico, with 483, received the largest number of the April deportees, while 163 were sent to Canada and less than 70 to each of the other countries.

Of the 400,010 aliens admitted during the 10 months from July 1, 1925, to April last, 130,138, or one-third of the total admitted, were of the class charged to the quota; 120,284 came in as natives of non-quota countries and their wives and children; 69,826 as returning residents; 42,540 as visitors for business or pleasure; and 19,814 as transits. Wives and children of United States citizens numbered 9,045; Government officials, 4,597; and students, 1,759. The remaining 2,007 were ministers and professors and their wives and children, and aliens to carry on trade under existing treaty.

TABLE 1.—INWARD AND OUTWARD PASSENGER MOVEMENT, JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926

Period	Inward					Aliens debarred from entering [1]	Outward					Aliens deported after landing [2]
	Aliens admitted			United States citizens arrived	Total		Aliens departed			United States citizens departed	Total	
	Immigrant	Non-immigrant	Total				Emigrant	Non-emigrant	Total			
1925												
July	18,590	14,177	32,767	26,326	59,093	2,000	8,784	17,715	26,499	66,136	92,635	919
August	22,421	17,052	39,473	49,922	89,395	1,774	7,539	12,978	20,517	37,185	57,702	940
September	26,721	23,081	49,802	68,500	118,302	1,429	7,200	12,485	19,685	24,369	44,054	855
October	28,685	19,427	48,112	35,413	83,525	1,965	7,674	13,264	20,938	24,227	45,165	909
November	26,642	14,860	41,502	23,118	64,620	1,951	6,555	11,915	18,470	18,039	36,509	835
December	21,089	11,216	32,305	18,027	50,332	1,932	8,840	12,663	21,503	19,274	40,777	595
1926												
January	19,072	10,661	29,733	19,695	49,428	1,662	5,286	9,795	15,081	25,987	41,068	532
February	20,041	10,632	30,673	23,687	54,360	1,453	3,232	8,451	11,683	29,108	40,791	342
March	29,504	15,182	44,686	29,987	74,673	1,404	3,457	8,982	12,439	25,215	37,654	938
April	33,400	17,557	50,957	28,931	79,888	1,470	4,989	10,780	15,769	26,312	42,081	1,052
Total	246,165	153,845	400,010	323,606	723,616	17,040	63,556	119,028	182,584	295,852	478,436	7,917

[1] These aliens are not included among arrivals, as they were not permitted to enter the United States.
[2] These aliens are included among aliens departed, they having entered the United States, legally or illegally, and later being deported.

TABLE 2.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING APRIL, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926, BY RACE OR PEOPLE, SEX, AND AGE GROUP

Race or people	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	April, 1926	July, 1925, to April, 1926	April, 1926	July, 1925, to April, 1926
African (black)	100	732	36	795
Armenian	71	636	10	85
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech)	329	2,270	149	901
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin	50	431	131	1,347
Chinese	65	1,143	266	2,460
Croatian and Slovenian	42	595	25	497
Cuban	141	1,074	70	1,143
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian	18	64	47	410
Dutch and Flemish	331	2,665	87	758
East Indian	4	41	3	66
English	4,524	36,401	412	5,480
Finnish	79	601	26	337
French	2,299	18,426	123	943
German	6,285	47,846	361	3,157
Greek	147	1,139	537	4,535
Hebrew	695	8,757	13	279
Irish	4,431	33,622	67	994
Italian (north)	149	1,187	126	2,570
Italian (south)	654	6,357	615	15,251
Japanese	76	488	110	1,030
Korean	11	40	6	25
Lithuanian	33	343	35	283
Magyar	112	940	100	801
Mexican	6,237	30,760	302	2,571
Pacific Islander		2		1
Polish	342	2,579	246	2,274
Portuguese	107	706	242	2,745
Rumanian	33	267	98	1,011
Russian	61	806	37	478
Ruthenian (Russniak)	80	435	5	56
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes)	2,454	16,974	155	3,063
Scotch	2,909	22,565	93	1,544
Slovak	26	510	58	687
Spanish	67	558	194	2,545
Spanish American	182	1,940	90	1,128
Syrian	46	395	15	235
Turkish	6	183	25	162
Welsh	136	1,119		68
West Indian (except Cuban)	50	281	36	564
Other peoples	18	287	38	277
Total	33,400	246,165	4,989	63,556
Male	20,538	135,833	3,491	46,914
Female	12,862	110,332	1,498	16,642
Under 16 years	4,444	38,921	209	2,758
16 to 44 years	26,218	184,088	3,739	48,013
45 years and over	2,738	23,156	1,041	12,785

TABLE 3.—LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND FUTURE PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING APRIL, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926, BY COUNTRY

[Residence for a year or more is regarded as permanent residence]

Country	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	April, 1926	July, 1925, to April, 1926	April, 1926	July, 1925, to April, 1926
Albania	5	87	36	254
Austria	93	934	38	345
Belgium	67	606	42	353
Bulgaria	17	148	14	76
Czechoslovakia	319	2,727	215	1,563
Danzig, Free City of	17	174	----------	1
Denmark	318	2,118	43	560
Esthonia	6	108	----------	13
Finland	69	450	17	308
France, including Corsica	383	3,549	104	759
Germany	5,540	40,927	317	2,651
Great Britain and Northern Ireland:				
England	1,106	8,878	291	3,864
Northern Ireland	132	354	7	178
Scotland	1,714	11,139	56	1,095
Wales	128	1,103	2	31
Greece	116	931	535	4,511
Hungary	100	784	92	634
Irish Free State	2,529	18,814	44	663
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia	695	6,632	742	17,812
Latvia	17	267	5	39
Lithuania	43	575	33	270
Luxemburg	5	103	----------	5
Netherlands	163	1,498	30	303
Norway	727	5,149	52	1,578
Poland	513	5,916	252	2,342
Portugal, including Azores, Cape Verde, and Madeira Islands	100	600	239	2,691
Rumania	103	990	91	1,095
Russia	134	1,567	14	121
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands	22	271	157	2,145
Sweden	1,180	7,398	36	710
Switzerland	211	1,673	32	339
Turkey in Europe	8	178	2	25
Yugoslavia	85	885	155	1,932
Other Europe	47	242	1	34
Total Europe	16,712	127,784	3,694	49,300
Armenia	5	15	5	43
China	86	1,487	282	2,559
India	5	79	3	103
Japan	89	540	111	1,042
Palestine	35	210	14	146
Persia	1	53	1	26
Syria	47	363	7	192
Turkey in Asia	7	17	12	98
Other Asia	21	111	7	44
Total Asia	296	2,875	442	4,253
Canada	9,047	75,576	182	1,721
Newfoundland	276	1,631	17	219
Mexico	6,316	31,328	307	2,603
Cuba	197	1,735	110	1,651
Other West Indies	110	767	92	1,686
Central America	138	1,090	25	443
Brazil	57	743	20	185
Other South America	137	1,715	75	1,618
Other America	----------	6	----------	1
Total America	16,278	114,591	828	9,527
Egypt	21	190	5	36
Other Africa	36	237	2	77
Australia	30	309	11	225
New Zealand	22	153	6	119
Other Pacific Islands	5	26	1	19
Total others	114	915	25	476
Grand total, all countries	33,400	246,165	4,989	63,556

TABLE 4.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924, DURING APRIL, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926, BY COUNTRY OR AREA OF BIRTH

[Quota immigrant aliens are charged to the quota; nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant aliens are not charged to the quota]

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted					
		Quota immigrant		Nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant		Total during April, 1926	Grand total July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926
		July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926	April, 1926	July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926	April, 1926		
Albania	100	66	3	427	34	37	493
Andorra	100	1		3			4
Austria	785	768	72	1,190	110	182	1,958
Belgium	[1] 512	439	55	1,311	105	160	1,750
Bulgaria	100	90	9	131	10	19	221
Czechoslovakia	3,073	2,910	364	2,335	234	598	5,245
Danzig, Free City of	228	183	17	31	2	19	214
Denmark	[1] 2,789	2,290	343	1,701	149	492	3,991
Esthonia	124	95	6	67	2	8	162
Finland	471	429	75	1,079	90	165	1,508
France	[1] 3,954	3,143	369	4,853	383	752	7,996
Germany	51,227	41,317	5,609	9,623	1,018	6,627	50,940
Great Britain and Northern Ireland:							
England	[1] 34,007	10,856	1,381	20,183	2,081	3,462	31,039
Northern Ireland		805	170	404	72	242	1,209
Scotland		12,137	1,855	6,941	741	2,596	19,078
Wales		1,162	134	800	73	207	1,962
Greece	100	91	7	2,478	315	322	2,569
Hungary	473	498	51	1,265	111	162	1,763
Iceland	100	49	1	24	2	3	73
Irish Free State	28,567	21,361	2,936	4,251	375	3,311	25,612
Italy	[1] 3,845	3,225	291	21,168	2,836	3,127	24,393
Latvia	142	124	8	164	7	15	288
Liechtenstein	100	10	3			3	10
Lithuania	344	342	24	573	77	101	915
Luxemburg	100	74	5	76	3	8	150
Monaco	100	5	1	8	1	2	13
Netherlands	[1] 1,648	1,367	156	1,922	164	320	3,289
Norway	6,453	5,473	787	2,836	462	1,249	8,309
Poland	5,982	5,419	435	4,473	534	969	9,892
Portugal	[1] 503	469	67	2,146	445	512	2,615
Rumania	603	589	58	1,219	129	187	1,808
Russia	[1] 2,248	1,829	148	2,698	243	391	4,527
San Marino	100	26	14	1		14	27
Spain	[1] 131	128	14	4,150	441	455	4,278
Sweden	9,561	7,976	1,232	2,977	368	1,600	10,953
Switzerland	2,081	1,612	197	1,928	211	408	3,540
Turkey in Europe	[1] 100	87	6	902	97	103	989
Yugoslavia	671	502	62	1,914	221	283	2,416
Other Europe	(1)	226	34	144	16	50	370
Total Europe	[1] 161,422	128,173	16,999	108,396	12,162	29,161	236,569
Afghanistan	100			2			2
Arabia	100	6	1	3	1	2	9
Armenia	124	48	5	129	9	14	177
Bhutan	100						
China	100	109	4	6,316	840	844	6,425
India	100	87	9	410	55	64	497
Iraq (Mesopotamia)	100	28	7	14		7	42
Japan	100	18	1	4,878	703	704	4,896
Muscat	100			1			1
Nepal	100						
Palestine	100	94	18	221	19	37	315
Persia	100	86	1	97	5	6	183
Siam	100			22	11	11	22
Syria	100	74	6	809	85	91	883
Turkey in Asia	(1)	24	6	328	46	52	352
Other Asia	(1)	221	30	185	17	47	406
Total Asia	1,424	795	88	13,415	1,791	1,879	14,210

[1] Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in Other Europe, Other Asia, Other Africa, Other Pacific, and in America is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 4.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924, DURING APRIL, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926, BY COUNTRY OR AREA OF BIRTH—Continued

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted					
		Quota immigrant		Nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant		Total during April, 1926	Grand total July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926
		July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926	April, 1926	July 1, 1925, to Apr. 30, 1926	April, 1926		
Cameroon (British)	100			1			1
Cameroon (French)	100						
Egypt	100	87	10	118	14	24	205
Ethiopia	100	1		2			3
Liberia	100	2		9			11
Morocco	100	16		18	2	2	34
Ruanda and Urundi	100						
South Africa	100	118	15	254	39	54	372
South West Africa	100	1		3			4
Tanganyika and Togoland (French and British)	300			1	1	1	1
Other Africa	(1)	46	14	83	8	22	129
Total Africa	1,200	271	39	489	64	103	760
Australia	121	137	12	2,355	245	257	2,492
Nauru	100						
New Zealand	100	89	9	817	86	95	906
New Guinea	100						
Samoa	100			1			1
Yap	100			8	6	6	8
Other Pacific	(1)	15	5	134	25	30	149
Total Pacific	621	241	26	3,315	362	388	3,556
Canada				75,656	9,099	9,099	75,656
Newfoundland				3,035	463	463	3,035
Mexico				45,930	7,796	7,796	45,930
Cuba				7,772	633	633	7,772
Dominican Republic				719	127	127	719
Haiti				144	8	8	144
British West Indies	(1)	512	81	3,296	345	426	3,808
Dutch West Indies	(1)	15	1	112	13	14	127
French West Indies	(1)	25	7	41	4	11	66
British Honduras	(1)	36		82	3	3	118
Canal Zone				14	2	2	14
Other Central America				2,338	285	285	2,338
Brazil				983	125	125	983
British Guiana	(1)	54	6	113	11	17	167
Dutch Guiana	(1)	2		38	31	31	40
French Guiana	(1)			1			1
Other South America				3,951	382	382	3,951
Greenland	(1)			6			6
Miquelon and St. Pierre	(1)	14	2	26	2	4	40
Total America		658	97	144,257	19,329	19,426	144,915
Grand total, all countries	164,667	130,138	17,249	269,872	33,708	50,957	400,010

[1] Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in Other Europe, Other Asia, Other Africa, Other Pacific, and in America is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 5.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924, DURING APRIL, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1, 1925, TO APRIL 30, 1926, BY SPECIFIED CLASSES

[The number of immigrants appearing in this table and in Table 4 is not comparable with the number of statistical immigrant aliens shown in the other tables, by races, etc.]

Admissible classes under immigration act of 1924	April, 1926	July, 1925, to April, 1926
Nonimmigrants under section 3		
Government officials, their families, attendants, servants, and employees	393	4,597
Temporary visitors for—		
Business	2,141	15,488
Pleasure	2,625	27,052
In continuous transit through the United States	2,976	19,814
To carry on trade under existing treaty	108	681
Total	8,243	67,632
Nonquota immigrants under section 4		
Wives of United States citizens	652	5,562
Children of United States citizens	400	3,483
Residents of the United States returning from a temporary visit abroad	7,664	69,826
Natives of Canada, Newfoundland, Mexico, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Canal Zone, or an independent country of Central or South America	[1] 16,471	[1] 119,356
Their wives	94	772
Their children	12	156
Ministers of religious denominations	42	563
Wives of ministers	19	199
Children of ministers	24	366
Professors of colleges, academies, seminaries, or universities	4	139
Wives of professors	1	36
Children of professors	1	23
Students	81	1,759
Total	25,465	202,240
Quota immigrants under section 5 (charged to quota)	17,249	130,138
Grand total admitted under the act	50,957	400,010

[1] Does not include aliens born in nonquota countries who were admitted as Government officials, visitors, transits, etc.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING

AMONG the activities of State labor bureaus, the following, reported either directly by the bureaus themselves or through the medium of their printed reports, are noted in the present issue of the LABOR REVIEW.

Alabama.—Civilian vocational rehabilitation, page 184.

California.—Operations under the State workmen's compensation act, page 66; and changes in volume of employment in the various industries in the State, page 114.

Illinois.—Changes in volume of employment, page 115.

Iowa.—Changes in volume of employment, page 117.

Louisiana.—Wages and labor conditions in various industries in the State, page 39.

Maryland.—Changes in volume of employment, page 119.

Massachusetts.—Changes in volume of employment, page 120.

New Jersey.—Since November, 1924, claims for unpaid wages have been handled by the employment bureau of the New Jersey Department of Labor under the wage payment law of 1899, amended in 1904. Many persons who have availed themselves of this provision have declared that it was their only recourse, as the expense of a civil suit would exceed the amount recovered, or they had no money to meet even the costs of filing a suit.

The bureau's experience in handling these cases has shown that investigation and arbitration were necessary and effected a high percentage of adjustments and that civil suits were frequently futile, numerous small employers being "judgment proof" either designedly or from force of circumstances.

Although these adjustments are an added burden for the bureau, justice has been done and considerable money and time saved to workers who otherwise would have either been deprived of wages due or have suffered a long delay in securing them.

At the Newark office, in a period of eight months, more than $2,000 in wages was collected in 98 disputed cases which constituted 74 per cent of the total number of proper claims. Each case involved from 1 to 15 workers.[1]

Industrial accidents and diseases, page 59.

New York.—Changes in volume of employment, page 121.

Oklahoma.—Changes in volume of employment, page 122.

South Carolina.—The industrial conditions of South Carolina in 1925 as compared with those in 1908 are indicated by the following figures from the seventeenth annual report of the State department of agriculture, commerce, and industries:

	1908	1925
Capital invested	$95, 270, 803	$299, 309, 408
Value of annual product	$108, 584, 060	$317, 857, 173
Number of persons employed	70, 249	99, 043
Under 16 years of age	8, 171	3, 773
Total wages (not salaries)	$20, 696, 656	$62, 509, 564

[1] Data are from New Jersey Department of Labor report, July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925 (Trenton?), pp. 68–69.

It will be noted that the capital investment was more than three times as great in 1925 as in 1908 and that the value of the manufactured product and wages have about trebled. The number of employees, however, has not increased in the same proportion because of the more extensive use and improvement of machinery.

The following statistics are for the textile industry in 1924 and 1925:

	1924	1925
Number of mills	212	220
Capital invested	$179, 420, 443	$195, 027, 756
Value of product	$212, 965, 901	$236, 876, 213
Number of employees	64, 780	70, 068
Children under 16 years	3, 580	3, 663
Wages (not salaries)	$39, 358, 996	$43, 598, 618
Total village population	163, 834	164, 556
Number of spindles	5, 272, 481	5, 311, 888

New and modern machines are being installed in various plants, electrically transmitted power is being used more and more, and vacuum cleaners, humidifiers, and other sanitary equipment have been put in. The mills as a whole have concluded that welfare work tends to make more efficient employees, and various plants are providing "comfortable houses, excellent schools, community houses with the latest improved equipment, such as gymnasiums, libraries, moving pictures, bowling alleys, pool tables, and swimming pools." There are also children's playgrounds. Playground directors and athletic directors are employed by numbers of mills. The report states that the health of the mill communities "will compare favorably with that of any other centers of population and is far better than that of the same number of persons in rural communities."

According to the commissioner of agriculture, commerce, and industries, fewer child labor prosecutions are reported from year to year, and all the mills offer the South Carolina labor office every assistance in the enforcement of the child labor law. "The mills as a whole are trying to get away from child labor as they have found it to be very expensive."

Among the recommendations made by the commissioner are those for a minimum wage law for women; a straight 9-hour workday for women and for children under 16 in mercantile establishments, amusement places, restaurants and cigar counters; and a workmen's compensation act.

Wisconsin.—Changes in volume of employment, page 122

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation in Alabama [1]

ALABAMA is included among the 39 States of the Union which have accepted the terms of the Federal industrial rehabilitation act providing for the "vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled by disease, accident, or congenital conditions, and their placement in employment."

Since the establishment of the rehabilitation service in Alabama in 1919 under the State board of education, over 600 disabled men and women have received training and have been found work. In the year 1924–25, 132 of these handicapped persons finished their courses and were placed in various employments. The earnings of these men and women after they became disabled but before they were trained averaged $27.08 per month; after training their average earnings were $74.68 per month. The social value of the increase in happiness and in the feeling of independence effected by the rehabilitation of these men and women, however, exceeds the actual financial gain.

A large part of the success of the rehabilitation service is attributed to the substantial cooperation of civic organizations, women's clubs, Sunday school classes, and interested individuals in contributing to the maintenance of worthy trainees and for the payment of hospital charges when surgical operations were necessary. Surgeons also have given their services and hospitals have made their facilities available in the cause of civilian vocational rehabilitation.

Aims of International Association of Social Progress [2]

A DECISION was reached at the thirteenth assembly of the International Association for Labor Legislation at Berne, September 23 to 25, 1925, to merge that association with the International Unemployment Association and the International Social Insurance Committee to form a single organization under the title "International Association of Social Progress." [3] This newly constituted body has recently sent out a declaration of its purposes and an appeal for members in all countries.

The statement strongly emphasizes the importance of private activities in the field of social reform, the association being firmly resolved "to continue to play its part, to act as an advance guard in scientific research, to continue systematically to educate public opinion, and to conduct an intensive propaganda in favor of the ratification and bona fide enforcement of international labor conventions."

[1] Alabama. Department of Education. Civilian Rehabilitation Bulletin No. 2: The vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise. Birmingham [1925?].
[2] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Apr. 26, 1926, pp. 101, 102.
[3] See Labor Review, December, 1925, p. 196.

Contrary to views which were too easily entertained in certain quarters, events have satisfactorily proved that the world could not be reformed overnight, and almost automatically, by the mere constitution of the International Labor Office, and that there is still an important part to be played by private enterprise in this matter.

What, then, exactly is this part in defending and perfecting labor legislation which can be played, side by side with an official labor institution, in order to increase the efficiency of its work?

The International Labor Organization of the League of Nations lacks that independence vis-à-vis the Governments which is one of the essential conditions of progress.

It is subject to the predominant influence of States, and it might easily, even against the most clearly expressed wish of the direction of the International Labor Office, become, instead of an instrument of progress, a factor of reaction as regards labor legislation, and might find itself condemned to mark time behind the most backward States, instead of being able to accelerate their progress.

For this reason, the official labor organization offers insufficient possibilities of collaboration to the various States and social elements which have hitherto shown themselves the most ardent protagonists of social reform. From the point of view of its constitution even, it will have to undergo a considerable revision of its membership, which is not always exactly in proportion to the social value of the factors which such members are supposed to represent; e. g., the working classes are limited in the organization to 25 per cent of the whole, and the representatives of science, as such, have practically no voice at all.

Employers who are in favor of social progress are generally excluded from the delegations of their groups, and those who are selected are for the most part hostile to any considerable change in the existing order.

The International Association for Social Progress aims to become "an important corps of the great army of peace," to protect the peoples against further social cataclysms.

Meeting of League of Nations Child Welfare Committee [1]

THE annual meeting of the child welfare committee of the League of Nations was held at Geneva from March 25 to April 1, 1926.

Among the questions discussed were child labor and family allowances. Resolutions were passed concerning the work of the International Labor Office relative to these matters and other child welfare problems.

In one of these resolutions the hope was expressed that that office would "continue to make representation to the Governments with a view to the ratification of international conventions on the admission of children to labor by every country."

Attention was drawn to the relation between school attendance legislation and labor laws and emphasis was placed upon the importance of extending the compulsory school age to the "age fixed by international conventions as being the earliest at which children may be allowed to work."

The resolution on family allowances reads as follows:

The committee thanks the International Labor Office for the very valuable report on the effect of the family allowance on the well-being of children. It considers that while the effect of the system on the birth rate can not as yet be stated with certainty, the action taken by equalization funds, including family allowances, nursing bonuses, and health services, must have a beneficial influence on the child mortality rate.

[1] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Apr. 26, 1926, pp. 112-114.

The committee recognizes that the well-being of children under normal circumstances must depend largely on the means of their parents, and that the value of the family allowance system, whether organized by the State or by private enterprise, depends on the extent to which it places in the hands of parents resources which, expanding with the size of the family, make it possible for the parents adequately to discharge their responsibilities toward their families.

The committee therefore asks the International Labor Office to continue, in collaboration with the secretariat of the League of Nations and the voluntary associations, its study of the subject, especially with a view to obtaining exactly comparable data, and to report progress to the next meeting of the committee.

Appointment of Commission of Inquiry into Production in Germany [1]

A GERMAN law, dated April 15, 1926, provides for the setting up within a month of a commission of inquiry into conditions affecting production and marketing in German industry. This commission is to consist of 11 members nominated by the Reichstag, 9 nominated by the Provisional Federal Economic Council, and 9 members appointed by the Government. Six other members may be appointed by the Government, on the proposal of the commission, either to serve during the whole term or for limited periods, or in connection with specific questions which may arise. Subcommittees may be formed from among the members of the commission to investigate special questions, and the law specifically prescribes that such a subcommittee must be appointed to inquire into the effect on output of the duration of working time and of the methods of remuneration on the basis of the experience acquired during recent years.

Limitation Upon the Employment of Foreigners in Guatemala [2]

ON APRIL 9, 1926, the President of Guatemala issued the regulations whereby the legislative decree (No. 1367) regarding employment became effective. The outstanding provision of the decree is that at least 75 per cent of the persons employed by companies engaged in commercial, industrial, or agricultural business in Guatemala shall be Guatemalans. Exceptions are to be made only in the case of employees of whom professional degrees are required. Those who violate this law are to be punished by a fine equal to twice the monthly salary of the substituted employee.

Decree Governing Strikes in Guatemala Disapproved by Legislative Assembly

THE Guatemalan executive decree (No. 914) issued on February 15, 1926,[3] which forbade strikes in public services and in certain private services and prescribed punishment to offenders, was disapproved by the Legislative Assembly on April 29, 1926, according to a report from the American consul at Guatemala, dated May 20, 1926.

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[1] Germany, Reichsarbeitsministerium. Reichsarbeitsblatt. Berlin, May 1, 1926, pp. 130, 131.
[2] Report from the American envoy, Arthur H. Geissler, at Guatemala City, dated Apr. 21, 1926.
[3] For the text of the decree see May, 1926, issue of the Review, p. 114.

Compulsory Road-Work Law of Peru [1]

THE enforcement of the Peruvian road conscription law (*Ley de conscripción vial*), No. 4113, which establishes compulsory road service for all males between the ages of 18 and 60, has resulted in the building of over 1,000 kilometers of roads each year since the enactment of this measure in 1920. The law provides that males between the ages of 18 and 21 and 50 and 60 must work six days a year, whereas those between the ages of 21 and 50 must work 12 days a year. Exemption may be obtained by paying a sum equivalent to the prevailing daily wage for unskilled labor in the respective locality, which is usually 1 sol [2] per day.

Old-Age Pensions Under Consideration in South Africa

ACCORDING to the April number of the Social and Industrial Review, issued by the Labor Department of South Africa, the Governor General on February 23, 1926, made public announcement of the appointment of a committee to examine and report upon—

(*a*) The payment of pensions by the State to necessitous, aged, and permanently incapacitated persons who are unable to maintain themselves and for whom no provision at present exists;

(*b*) A system of national insurance as a means of making provision for the risks of sickness, accident, premature death, invalidity, old age, unemployment, and maternity.

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[1] Report from George A. Makinson, the American consul at Callao-Lima, Peru, dated Apr. 5, 1926.
[2] Exchange rate of the sol=38.4 cents.

DIRECTORY OF LABOR OFFICES IN UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(Bureaus of Labor, Employment Offices, Industrial Commissions, State Workmen's Compensation Insurance Funds, Workmen's Compensation Commissions, Minimum Wage Boards, Factory Inspection Bureaus, and Arbitration and Conciliation Boards)

UNITED STATES

Department of Labor:
Hon. James J. Davis, Secretary.
Hon. Robe Carl White, Assistant Secretary.
Hon. W. W. Husband, Second Assistant Secretary.
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

Bureau of Labor Statistics—
Ethelbert Stewart, commissioner.
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

Bureau of Immigration—
Harry E. Hull, commissioner general.
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

Bureau of Naturalization—
Raymond F. Crist, commissioner.
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

Children's Bureau—
Miss Grace Abbott, chief.
Address: Twentieth Street and Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.

Employment Service—
Francis I. Jones, director general.
Address: Twentieth and C Streets NW., Washington, D. C.

Conciliation Service—
Hugh L. Kerwin, director.
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

Women's Bureau—
Miss Mary Anderson, director.
Address: Twentieth Street and Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.

United States Housing Corporation—
Robert Watson, director.
Address: 200 New Jersey Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.

United States Employees' Compensation Commission:
Mrs. Bessie P. Brueggeman, chairman.
Charles H. Verrill, commissioner.
Harry Bassett, commissioner.
Address of commission: The Interior Building, Washington, D. C.

Railroad Board of Mediation:
Samuel E. Winslow.
Carl Williams.
G. Wallace W. Hanger.
Hywel Davies.
Edwin C. Morrow.

Alabama

Child welfare commission:
W. W. Brandon, ex officio chairman, governor.

Child welfare department—
Miss Virginia B. Handley, director.

Child labor division—
Miss Phadra Norsworthy, chief inspector.
Address of commission: Montgomery.

Workmen's compensation division:
Frank N. Julian, commissioner, ex officio superintendent of insurance.
Walter H. Monroe, workmen's compensation clerk.
Address of commission: Montgomery.

Alaska

Federal mine inspector:
B. D. Stewart, supervising mining engineer, United States Geological Survey, Juneau.

Arizona

Industrial commission:[1]
Cleve W. Van Dyke, chairman.
R. B. Sims, member and secretary.
Bert Clingan, member.
Address of commission: Phoenix.
State inspector of mines:
Tom C. Foster, Phoenix.
United States Employment Service:
A. L. Doolittle, Federal director for State, 121 North Second Avenue, Phoenix.

Arkansas

Bureau of labor and statistics:
W. E. Green, commissioner.
E. I. McKinley, deputy commissioner and supervisor of statistical division.
J. D. Newcomb, jr., chief boiler inspector.
Industrial welfare commission—
W. E. Green, ex officio member and chairman.
Mrs. Mary E. Prothro, secretary.
A. S. Maupin, Pine Bluff.
Mrs. W. T. Wooten, Hot Springs.
Jack Hill, Fort Smith.
Child labor division—
W. E. Green, commissioner.
Miss Lillian Castleberry, secretary.
Mine inspection department—
Claude Speegle, State mine inspector, Fort Smith.
United States Employment Service—
W. E. Green, Federal director.
Address all communications to Commissioner of Labor, Room 326, State Capitol, Little Rock, Ark.

California

Bureau of labor statistics:
Walter G. Mathewson, commissioner, State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.
Industrial accident commission:
John A. McGilvray, chairman.
John W. Carrigan.
J. E. Olmsted.
E. G. Sheibley, chief engineer and superintendent of safety.
F. B. Lord, secretary.
M. R. Gibbons, medical director.
G. C. Faulkner, attorney.
Address of commission: State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.
State compensation insurance fund:
Clark B. Day, manager, State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.
Industrial welfare commission:
A. B. C. Dohrmann, chairman.
Walter G. Mathewson.
Henry W. Louis.
Mrs. Katherine Philips Edson, executive commissioner.
Address of commission: State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.

[1] Organized February 1, 1926.

Commission of immigration and housing:
Most Rev. E. J. Hanna, D. D., president.
G. B. Ocheltree, vice president.
J. H. McBride, M. D.
Chas. C. Chapman.
R. W. Kearney, attorney and executive officer.
George S. Hollis, secretary.
Address of commission: State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.
United States Employment Service:
Walter G. Mathewson, Federal director for State, State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.

Colorado

Bureau of labor statistics:
Carl S. Milliken, secretary of state and ex-officio labor commissioner.
M. H. Alexander, deputy labor commissioner and chief factory inspector.
Address of bureau: Denver.
Industrial commission:
William I. Reilly, chairman.
Thomas Annear.
Joseph C. Bell.
Feay B. Smith, referee.
William F. Mowry, chief of claim department and acting secretary.
State compensation insurance fund—
Thomas P. Kearney, manager.
Minimum wage commission—
(According to an act passed by the 1917 legislature and effective July 20, 1917, the industrial commission performs the duties of the minimum wage commission.)
Address of commission: State Capitol Building, Denver.

Connecticut

Department of labor and factory inspection:
Harry E. Mackenzie, commissioner, Hartford
State employment offices—
Harry E. Mackenzie, commissioner, Hartford.
Board of compensation commissioners:
Frederic M. Williams, chairman, room 4, county courthouse, Waterbury.
Chas. Kleiner, 177 Church Street, New Haven.
Edward T. Buckingham, 1024 Main Street, Bridgeport.
Leo J. Noonan, 54 Church Street, Hartford.
Dr. James J. Donohue, Central Building, Norwich.
State board of mediation and arbitration:
Frank A. Hagarty, Hartford.
Patrick F. McDonough, New Britain
Patrick F. O'Meara, New Haven.
United States Employment Service:
Harry E. Mackenzie, Federal director for State, Hartford.

Delaware

Labor commission:
George B. Miller, chairman.
John H. Hickey.
Thomas C. Frame, jr.
George A. Hill.
Miss Helen S. Garrett.
Miss Marguerite Postles, secretary.
Address of commission: Wilmington.
Child-labor division—
Charles A. Hagner, chief, Industrial Trust Building, Wilmington.
Women's labor division—
Miss Marguerite Postles, assistant, Industrial Trust Building, Wilmington.

Industrial accident board:
Walter O. Stack, president.
Robert K. Jones.
William J. Swain.
Charles H. Grantland, secretary.
Address of board: Statehouse, Dover, and Delaware Trust Building, Wilmington.

Florida

State labor inspector:
R. L. Eaton, Monticello.

Georgia

Department of commerce and labor:
H. M. Stanley, commissioner.
I. L. Griffin, factory inspector.
Address of department: Atlanta.
Industrial commission:
H. M. Stanley, chairman.
George M. Napier, attorney general (ex officio).
R. C. Norman, representing employers.
L. J. Kilburn, representing employees.
Address of commission: Atlanta.
United States Employment Service:
Cator Woolford, Federal director for State, 507 Chamber of Commerce Building, Atlanta.

Hawaii

CITY AND COUNTY OF HONOLULU

Industrial accident board:
A. J. Campbell, chairman.
A. J. Wirtz.
M. Macintyre.
H. W. Laws.
W. W. Goodale.
A. W. Nexsen, secretary.
A. F. Schmitz, inspector.
Address of board: 314–317 James Campbell Building, Honolulu.

COUNTY OF MAUI

Industrial accident board:
Joseph H. Gray, chairman, Wailuku.
Don T. Carey, Wailuku.
Ralph H. Wilson, Wailuku.
Frank N. Lufkin, Lahaina.
W. F. Crockett, Wailuku.
Mrs. Francis S. Wadsworth, inspector and secretary, Wailuku.

COUNTY OF HAWAII

Industrial accident board:
Byron K. Baird, chairman.
Otto Rose.
James Webster.
Dr. H. B. Elliot.
Gavin A. Bush.
J. W. Bains, secretary.
Address of board: Hilo.

COUNTY OF KAUAI

Industrial accident board:
J. M. Lydgate, chairman, Lihue.
Fred Trowbridge, Kapaa.
J. B. Fernandez, Kapaa.
H. H. Brodie, Hanapepe.
C. H. Gates, Lihue.

Idaho

Industrial accident board:
Joel Brown, chairman.
G. W. Suppiger.
Lawrence E. Worstell.
John D. Case, secretary.
Address of board: Boise.
State insurance fund:
W. D. Yager, Boise.

Illinois

Department of labor:
George B. Arnold, director, State Capitol, Springfield.
Division of factory inspection—
W. H. Curran, chief inspector, 1543 Transportation Building, 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago.
Division of free employment offices—
C. M. Crayton, State superintendent, State Capitol, Springfield.
Division of private employment agencies—
John J. McKenna, chief inspector, 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago.
General advisory board (for the Illinois Free Employment Offices)—
Prof. F. S. Deibler, chairman, Evanston.
Dr. A. H. R. Atwood, secretary (representing employers), Chicago.
Oscar G. Mayer (representing employers.)
John H. Walker (representing employees.)
Agnes Nestor (representing employees).
R. D. Cahn, statistician in charge, 116 North Dearborn Street, Chicago.
Industrial commission—
William M. Scanlan, chairman.
John J. Brenholt, jr. (representing employers).
John B. French (representing employers).
James Short (representing employees).
Clayton A. Pense (representing employees).
Walter F. Rohm, secretary.
Dr. S. Latham, medical director.
Address of commission: 303–318 City Hall Square Building, Chicago.
Bureau of industrial accident and labor research—
R. D. Cahn, chief.
Address: 139 North Clark Street, Chicago.
United States Employment Service:
Barney Cohen, Federal director for State, 116 North Dearborn Street, Chicago.

Indiana

Industrial board:
Dixson H. Bynum, chairman.
Eph. P. Dailey.
Edgar A. Perkins, sr.
Walter W. Wills.
Thomas A. Riley.
Charles A. Rockwell, secretary.
Address of board: Room 432, Statehouse, Indianapolis.
Department of factories, buildings, and workshops—
James E. Reagin, chief inspector, room 404, Statehouse, Indianapolis.
Department of boilers—
James M. Woods, chief inspector (also locomotive inspector for the Public Service Commission), room 404 Statehouse, Indianapolis.
Department of women and children—
Mrs. Margaret Tomlin Hoop, director, room 403, Statehouse, Indianapolis.
Department of mines and mining:
Albert C. Dally, chief inspector, room 430, Statehouse, Indianapolis.
United States Employment Service:
E. P. Dailey, Federal director for State, room 404, Statehouse, Indianapolis.

Iowa

Bureau of labor:
A. L. Urick, commissioner.
Free employment bureau—
George B. Albert, clerk.
Address of bureau: Des Moines.
State bureau of mines:
W. E. Holland, inspector first district, Centerville.
R. T. Rhys, inspector second district, Ottumwa.
Edward Sweeney, inspector third district, Des Moines.
J. R. Frank, secretary, Des Moines.
Workmen's compensation service:
A. B. Funk, industrial commissioner.
Ralph Young, deputy commissioner.
Ray M. Spangler, secretary.
Dr. Oliver J. Fay, medical counsel.
Address of service: Statehouse, Des Moines.
United States Employment Service:
A. L. Urick, Federal director for State, 123 Courthouse, Des Moines.

Kansas

Public service commission:
L. T. Hussey, chairman.
Clarence Smith
Frank O'Brien.
Jesse W. Greenleaf.
W. C. Millar.
E. N. Cummings, secretary.
Address of commission: Statehouse, Topeka.
Mine inspection department—
James Sherwood, chief mine inspector, Pittsburg.
Free employment office—
John H. Crawford, director of labor department and Federal director for State, United States Employment Service.
Mrs. Daisy L. Gulick, director of women's work and factory inspector.
Address: Statehouse, Topeka.

Kentucky

Department of agriculture, labor, and statistics:
Clell Coleman, commissioner, Frankfort.
Edward F. Seiller, chief labor inspector, 95 Todd Building, Louisville.
George Schneider, deputy labor inspector, 95 Todd Building, Louisville.
John E. Rodgers, deputy labor inspector, 104 West Third Street, Covington.
Mrs. C. H. Karsner, deputy labor inspector, Forks of Elkhorn.
Mrs. Evelyn B. Rodman, deputy labor inspector, 95 Todd Building, Louisville.
Workmen's compensation board:
R. T. Kenard, chairman.
Joseph M. Lee.
Thos. S. Rhea.
Forrest G. Fields, secretary.
Everett E. Fields, referee.
J. Wood Vance, referee.
Address of board: Frankfort.

Louisiana

Bureau of labor and industrial statistics:
Frank E. Wood, commissioner, suite 626, Audubon Building, New Orleans.
Mrs. Edward Pillsbury, factories inspector, suite 5, Howard Annex, Municipal Building, New Orleans.
United States Employment Service:
Frank E. Wood, Federal director, suite 626, Audubon Building, New Orleans.

Maine

Department of labor and industry:
Charles O. Beals, commissioner, Statehouse, Augusta.
Industrial accident commission:
Donald D. Garcelon, chairman.
Willis B. Hall, associate legal member.
Charles O. Beals (ex officio) commissioner of labor.
Wilbur D. Spencer (ex officio) insurance commissioner.
Address of commission: Statehouse, Augusta.
State board of arbitration and conciliation:
Frank H. Ingraham, chairman, Rockland.
Edward F. Gowell, Berwick.
William T. Hinckley, secretary, 178 Forrest Avenue, Bangor.

Maryland

Commissioner of labor and statistics:
J. Knox Insley, M. D., St. Paul and Saratoga Streets, Baltimore.
State industrial accident commission:
Robert H. Carr, chairman.
Omar D. Crothers.
George Louis Eppler.
A. E. Brown, secretary.
Miss R. O. Harrison, director of claims.
Dr. Robert P. Bay, chief medical examiner.
State accident fund—
James E. Green, superintendent.
Address of commission: 741 Equitable Building, Baltimore.
United States Employment Service:
John Allison Muir, Federal director, 1900 Washington Boulevard, Baltimore.

Massachusetts

Department of labor and industries:
E. Leroy Sweetser, commissioner.
Miss Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner.
Associate commissioners (constituting the board of conciliation and arbitration and the minimum wage commission)—
Edward Fisher, chairman.
Herbert P. Wasgatt.
Samuel Ross.
Division of industrial safety—
John P. Meade, director.
Division of statistics (including public employment offices)—
Roswell F. Phelps, director.
Division of standards—
Francis Meredith, director.
Division of minimum wage—
Miss Ethel M. Johnson, acting director.
Address of department: Room 473, Statehouse, Boston.
Department of industrial accidents:
William W. Kennard, chairman.
Frank J. Donahue.
David T. Dickinson.
Joseph A. Parks.
Chester E. Gleason.
Charles M. Stiller.
Emma Fall Schofield.
Robert E. Grandfield, secretary.
Francis D. Donoghue, M. D., medical adviser.
Address of board: Room 272, Statehouse, Boston.
United States Employment Service:
E. Leroy Sweetser, Federal director for State, 473 Statehouse, Boston.

Michigan

Department of labor and industry:
Frank R. Sanders, chairman.
Samuel H. Rhoads, compensation commissioner.
Carl Young, compensation commissioner.
Perry J. Ward, labor commissioner.
S. B. Mullen, statistician.
Fred S. Johnson, secretary.
Address of department: Lansing.
State accident fund:
William T. Shaw, manager, Lansing.
United States Employment Service:
Perry J. Ward, Federal director for State, 306 Owen Building, Detroit.

Minnesota

Industrial commission:
J. D. Williams, chairman.
Henry McColl.
F. A. Duxbury.
John P. Gardiner, secretary.
Division of workmen's compensation—
F. E. Hoffmann, chief.
Division of accident prevention—
David R. Henderson, chief.
Division of boiler inspection—
George Wilcox, chief.
Division of women and children—
Miss Louise E. Schutz, superintendent.
Address of commission: 612 Bremer Arcade, St. Paul.
United States Employment Service:
J. D. Williams, Federal director for State, 612 Bremer Arcade, St. Paul.

Mississippi

Department of State factory inspection:
R. S. Curry, M. D., State factory inspector, Jackson.

Missouri

Bureau of labor statistics:
Roye B. Hinkle, commissioner, Jefferson City.
Department of industrial inspection:
Mrs. Alice Curtice Moyer-Wing, Fullerton Building, St. Louis.
United States Employment Service:
Roye B. Hinkle, Federal director for State, Jefferson City.

Montana

Department of agriculture, labor, and industry:
A. H. Bowman, commissioner, Helena.
Industrial accident board:
Jerome G. Locke, chairman.
G. P. Porter, State auditor and (ex officio) commissioner of insurance.
A. H. Bowman, commissioner of agriculture, labor, and industry, and (ex officio) treasurer of board.
W. B. McLaughlin, secretary.
Thomas C. Patrick, chief accountant.
Address of board: Helena.
Bureau of safety inspection—
J. R. Hartley, boiler and safety inspector, Billings.
J. H. Bondy, boiler and safety inspector, Great Falls.
John Sewell, boiler and safety inspector, Butte.
William Maxwell, quartz mine and safety inspector, Butte.
Ed Davies, coal mine and safety inspector, Helena.
United States Employment Service:
Barclay Craighead, Federal director for State, department of agriculture, labor, and industry, Helena.

Nebraska

Department of labor:
Frank A. Kennedy, secretary of labor and compensation commissioner, State Capitol, Lincoln.
United States Employment Service:
Frank A. Kennedy, Federal director for State, State Capitol, Lincoln.

Nevada

Office of labor commissioner:
J. B. Clinedinst, labor commissioner, Carson City.
Industrial commission:
Dan J. Sullivan, chairman.
John M. Gray.
J. B. Clinedinst.
Dr. Donald Maclean, chief medical adviser.
Address of commission: Carson City.
Inspector of mines:
A. J. Stinson, Carson City.
United States Employment Service:
J. B. Clinedinst, Federal director for State, Carson City.

New Hampshire

Bureau of labor:
John S. B. Davie, commissioner, Concord.
Bion L. Nutting, factory inspector, Concord.
Herbert O. Prime, factory inspector, Laconia.
Mary R. Chagnon, factory inspector, Manchester.
State board of conciliation and arbitration:
J. R. McLane (representing public), Manchester.
George A. Tenney (representing manufacturers), Claremont.
Russell C. Thorsell (representing labor), Exeter.
United States Employment Service:
John S. B. Davie, Federal director for State, Concord.

New Jersey

Department of labor:
Andrew F. McBride, M. D., commissioner.
Dr. Martin Szamatolski, consulting chemist.
Bureau of general and structural inspection and explosives—
Charles H. Weeks, deputy commissioner of labor.
Bureau of hygiene and sanitation—
John Roach, deputy commissioner of labor.
Bureau of electrical and mechanical equipment—
Rowland H. Leveridge, chief.
Bureau of statistics and records—
James A. T. Gribbin, acting chief.
Bureau of engineers' license, steam boiler, and refrigerating plant inspection—
Joseph F. Scott, chief examiner.
Bureau of workmen's compensation—
Andrew F. McBride, M. D., commissioner.
William E. Stubbs, deputy commissioner.
Harry J. Goas, deputy commissioner.
Charles E. Corbin, deputy commissioner.
William B. McMichael, referee.
John J. Stahl, referee.
Maurice S. Avidan, M. D., medical adviser.
Bureau of employment—
Russell J. Eldridge, director.
Address of department: State Office Building, Trenton.
United States Employment Service:
Andrew F. McBride, M. D., Federal director for State, Trenton.

New Mexico

Mine inspector:
Warren Bracewell, 724 North Fourth Street, Albuquerque.

New York

Department of labor:
James A. Hamilton, industrial commissioner.
James J. Leavy, deputy industrial commissioner.
Sara McPike, secretary.
Address of department: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Industrial board—
Frances Perkins, chairman.
Richard J. Cullen.
Richard H. Curran.
Address of board: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Bureau of inspection—
James L. Gernon, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Bureau of workmen's compensation—
James E. Donahoe, director.
Dr. Raphael Lewy, chief medical examiner.
Address of bureau: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Bureau of industrial relations—
James Brady, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Division of mediation and arbitration—
A. J. Portenar, chief mediator, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Division of employment—
Richard A. Flinn, chief, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Division of aliens—
Lillian R. Sire, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Division of industrial code—
Edward E. J. Pierce, referee.
Thomas C. Eipper, referee.
Address of division: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Division of engineering—
William J. Picard, chief, State Capitol, Albany.
Bureau of industrial hygiene—
Dr. Leland E. Cofer, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Bureau of statistics and information—
Leonard W. Hatch, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
E. B. Patton, chief statistician, State Capitol, Albany.
Bureau of women in industry—
Miss Nelle Swartz, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
State insurance fund—
C. G. Smith, manager, 432 Fourth Avenue, New York.
Division of self-insurance—
John J. Ryan, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street New York.
United States Employment Service:
James A. Hamilton, Federal director for State, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.

North Carolina

Department of labor and printing:
Frank D. Grist, commissioner, Raleigh.
United States Employment Service:
Frank D. Grist, Federal director for State, Raleigh.

North Dakota

Department of agriculture and labor:
Joseph A. Kitchen, commissioner, Bismarck.
Workmen's compensation bureau:
Joseph A. Kitchen, chairman.
S. S. McDonald.
S. A. Olsness.
G. N. Livdahl.
R. E. Wenzel.
J. R. Hanley, secretary.
Address of bureau: Bismarck.

Minimum wage commission:
Dorothy Blanding, secretary, Bismarck.
United States Employment Service:
Ed. McCahan, superintendent, 602 Northern Pacific Avenue, Fargo.

Ohio

Department of industrial relations:
H. R. Witter, director.
Industrial commission—
J. D. Clark, chairman.
P. F. Casey.
Rose Moriarty.
H. R. Witter, secretary.
Division of workmen's compensation—
W. A. Harman, assistant director, department of industrial relations.
H. L. Rebrassier, supervisor of claims.
Evan I. Evans, supervisor of actuarial division.
G. L. Coffinbery, auditor and statistician.
Dr. T. R. Fletcher, chief medical examiner.
Division of labor statistics (including free employment service)—
O. W. Brach, chief.
Division of safety and hygiene—
Thos. P. Kearnes, superintendent.
Carl C. Beasor, chief statistician.
Division of factory inspection—
C. A. Benedict, chief.
Division of boiler inspection—
C. O. Myers, chief.
Division of examiners of steam engineers—
A. L. Lindsay, chief.
Division of mines—
Jerome Watson, chief.
Address of department: Columbus.
United States Employment Service:
O. W. Brach, Federal director for State, Columbus.

Oklahoma

Department of labor:
Claude E. Connally, commissioner, Oklahoma City.
Board of arbitration and conciliation:
Claude E. Connally, chairman, Oklahoma City.
W. A. Murphy, assistant commissioner of labor, secretary, Oklahoma City.
O. L. Martin, Hanna.
John Cooper, Maysville.
Bert M. Draper, Claremore.
L. N. Trieb, Sapulpa.
James Templeton, Hartshorne.
Orlando B. Swain, Okmulgee.
Industrial commission:
Mrs. F. L. Roblin, chairman.
Harry C. Myers.
Edgar Fenton.
Mrs. A. E. Bond, secretary.
Address of commission: State Capitol, Oklahoma City.
United States Employment Service:
Claude E. Connally, Federal director for State, State Capitol, Oklahoma City.

Oregon

Bureau of labor:
C. H. Gram, commissioner and factory inspector, Salem.
W. H. Fitzgerald, deputy commissioner, 501 Courthouse, Portland.
Board of inspectors of child labor:
Stephen G. Smith, chairman, 65–67 Broadway, Portland.
Mrs. Sarah A. Evans, Portland.
Miss Pauline Kline, Corvallis.
Mrs. A. M. Grilley, Portland.
Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, secretary, 646–648 Courthouse, Portland.

Industrial welfare commission:
Thomas McCusker, chairman.
Dr. C. J. Smith.
Mrs. L. Gee.
Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, secretary and inspector.
Address of commission: 646–648 Courthouse, Portland.

State industrial accident commission:
E. E. Bragg, chairman.
D. A. Elkins.
William A. Marshall.
Dr. F. H. Thompson, medical adviser.
Address of commission: Salem.

State board of conciliation:
William F. Woodward, chairman, 550 Medical Arts Building, Portland.
John K. Flynn, 589 Hoyt Street, Portland.
William E. Kimsey, secretary, 244 Salmon Street, Portland.

United States Employment Service:
W. H. Fitzgerald, Federal director and zone clearance officer, 501 Courthouse, Portland.

Pennsylvania

Department of labor and industry:
Richard H. Lansburgh, secretary.

Industrial board—
Richard H. Lansburgh, chairman.
Mrs. Samuel Semple.
Joseph H. Willits.
T. J. Gillespie.
John A. Phillips.
J. M. Sandel, secretary.

State workmen's insurance board—
Richard H. Lansburgh, chairman.
Samuel W. McCulloch, insurance commissioner.
Samuel S. Lewis, state treasurer.

State workmen's insurance fund—
Gabriel H. Moyer, manager.

Workmen's compensation board—
T. Henry Walnut, chairman.
Paul W. Houck.
J. L. Morrison.
Richard H. Lansburgh, ex officio.
J. C. Detweiler, secretary.

Bureau of workmen's compensation—
W. H. Horner, director.

Bureau of employment—
Robert J. Peters, director.

Bureau of industrial relations—
David Williams, director.

Bureau of industrial standards—
J. M. Sandel, director.

Bureau of women and children—
Charlotte E. Carr, director.

Bureau of inspection—
Cyril Ainsworth, director.

Bureau of rehabilitation—
S. S. Riddle, director.

Bureau of statistics—
William J. Maguire, director.
Address of department: South Office Building, Harrisburg.

Department of mines:
Joseph J. Walsh, superintendent, Harrisburg.

United States Employment Service:
Robert J. Peters, Federal director for State, Harrisburg.

Philippine Islands

Bureau of labor (under department of commerce and communications):
Hermenegildo Cruz, director, Manila.

Porto Rico

Department of agriculture and labor:
Carlos E. Chardón, commissioner.
Bureau of labor—
Carmelo Honoré, chief.
Address of department: San Juan.
Workmen's relief commission:
Ramon Montaner, chairman.
R. Palacios Rodriguez, vice chairman.
Joaquin A. Becerril, secretary and permanent member.
Alfredo Vargas.
P. Rivera Martinez.
Pedro Santana, jr.
J. Cintron Davila, administrative secretary.
Address of commission: Post-office box 266, San Juan.

Rhode Island

Department of Labor:
George H. Webb, commissioner, Statehouse, Providence.
Office of factory inspectors:
J. Ellery Hudson, chief inspector, Statehouse, Providence.
Board of labor (for the adjustment of labor disputes):
George H. Webb, commissioner of labor, chairman.
Edwin O. Chase (representing employers).
William C. Fisher (representing employers).
Albert E. Hohler (representing employees).
John H. Powers (representing employees).
Christopher M. Dunn, deputy commissioner of labor secretary.
Address of board: Statehouse, Providence
United States Employment Service:
George H. Webb, Federal director for State, Statehouse, Providence.

South Carolina

Department of agriculture, commerce, and industries:
J. W. Shealy, commissioner.
Address of department: Columbia.
Board of conciliation and arbitration:
B. E. Geer, chairman, Greenville.
W. H. McNairy, Dillon.
H. E. Thompson, secretary, Batesburg.

South Dakota

Office of industrial commissioner:[2]
S. A. Travis, industrial commissioner.
Address: Pierre.

Tennessee

Department of labor:
Ed. M. Gillenwaters, commissioner, Nashville.
Ben Feldman, secretary, Nashville.
Division of factory inspection—
M. F. Nicholson, chief inspector, Nashville.
Division of mines—
O. P. Pile, chief inspector, Cowan.
Division of hotel inspection—
Sam I. Bolton, inspector, Nashville.
Division of workmen's compensation—
Harry L. Nelson, superintendent, 2211 Pierce Avenue, Nashville.
United States Employment Service:
J. A. Porter, special agent, Knoxville.

[2] Administers workmen's compensation act.

Texas

Bureau of labor statistics:
E. J. Crocker, commissioner.
J. Lee Tarpley, chief deputy.
Fanny S. Daniel, statistician and secretary.
Address of bureau: State Capitol, Austin.
Industrial accident board:
Jas. W. Swayne, chairman.
J. M. Pittillo.
Mrs. Espa Stanford.
E. B. Barnes, secretary.
Address of board: Austin.
United States Employment Service:
C. W. Woodman, assistant director.
Address: 806 Taylor Street, Fort Worth.

Utah

Industrial commission:
O. F. McShane, chairman.
Wm. M. Knerr.
Nephi L. Morris.
Carolyn I. Smith, secretary.
State insurance fund—
C. A. Caine, manager.
Address of commission: State Capitol, Salt Lake City.

Vermont

Office of commissioner of industries:
John S. Buttles, commissioner, Montpelier.
Fred S. Pease, deputy commissioner, Burlington.
State board of conciliation and arbitration:
Henry C. Brislin, Rutland.
Ashley J. Goss, Danville.
Hugh J. M. Jones, Montpelier.

Virginia

Bureau of labor and industry:
John Hopkins Hall, jr., commissioner.
A. G. Lucas, chief mine inspector.
John Gribben, chief factory and machinery inspector.
Division of women and children—
Mrs. Mary L. Scrogham, director.
Address of bureau: Richmond.
Industrial commission:
Bolling H. Handy, chairman.
C. G. Kizer.
Parke P. Deans.
C. W. Dudley, statistician.
W. F. Bursey, secretary.
Address of commission: Box 1794, Richmond.
United States Employment Service:
John Hopkins Hall, jr., Federal director for State, State Capitol, Richmond.

Washington

Department of labor and industries:
Claire Bowman, director.
John Shaughnessy, supervisor of industrial insurance and medical aid.
Martin J. Flyzik, supervisor of safety and industrial relations.
Mrs. G. V. Haney, supervisor of women in industry.
Dr. L. L. Goodnow, chief medical adviser.
R. M. Van Dorn, industrial statistician.
Percy Gilbert, secretary.

Department of labor and industries—Continued.
Industrial welfare committee—
Claire Bowman, chairman, director of labor and industries.
John Shaughnessy, supervisor of industrial insurance and medical aid.
R. M. Van Dorn, industrial statistician.
Martin J. Flyzik, supervisor of safety and industrial relations.
Mrs. G. V. Haney, supervisor of women in industry.
Address of department: Olympia.
United States Employment Service:
William C. Carpenter, Federal director for State, 421 Federal Building, Spokane.

West Virginia

Bureau of labor:
George F. Daugherty, commissioner, Charleston.
State compensation commissioner:
Lee Ott, commissioner.
J. E. Brown, secretary.
J. W. Smiley, actuary.
Lewis J. Frey, chief statistician.
R. H. Walker, chief medical examiner.
Address: Charleston.
Department of mines:
R. M. Lambie, chief, Charleston.
United States Employment Service:
George F. Daugherty, Federal director for State, Charleston.

Wisconsin

Industrial commission:
Fred M. Wilcox, chairman.
R. G. Knutson.
L. A. Tarrell.
A. J. Altmeyer, secretary.
Safety and sanitation department—
R. McA. Keown, engineer.
Workmen's compensation department—
F. T. McCormick, chief examiner.
Employment department—
R. G. Knutson, director.
Apprenticeship department—
Walter F. Simon, supervisor.
Women and child labor department—
Taylor Frye, director.
Miss Maud Swett, field director, room 809, Manufacturers' Home Building, Milwaukee.
Statistical department—
Orrin A. Fried, statistician.
Address of commission: Madison.
United States Employment Service:
R. G. Knutson, Federal director for State, State Capitol, Madison.

Wyoming

Department of labor and statistics:
T. G. Freshney, commissioner, Capitol Building, Cheyenne.
Child labor board:
T. G. Freshney, chairman.
Lewis G. Tidball.
Dr. G. M. Anderson.
Workmen's compensation department (under State treasurer's office):
J. M. Snyder, State treasurer.
C. B. Morgan, deputy treasurer.
Arthur Calverley, assistant deputy and department manager.
Address of department: Cheyenne.
United States Employment Service:
Wade B. McAdams, Chamber of Commerce Building, Casper.

ARGENTINA

Ministry of the Interior (address, Buenos Aires):
National labor department.

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics [3] (address, Melbourne):

AUSTRIA

Federal Statistical Office (address, Vienna):
Labor statistics division.

BELGIUM

Ministry of Industry, Labor, and Social Welfare (address, 12 Rue Lambermont, Brussels):
Labor office.

BOLIVIA

Ministry of Promotion (address, La Paz).

BRAZIL

Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce (address, Rio de Janeiro).

BULGARIA

Ministry of Commerce, Industry, and Labor (address Rue Albinska 48, Sofia):
Labor section.

CANADA

Department of Labor:
J. C. Elliott, K. C. minister.
H. H. Ward, deputy minister.
Gerald H. Brown, assistant deputy minister.
R. A. Rigg, director of employment service.
A. W. Crawford, director of technical education.
S. T. Bastedo, superintendent of Dominion Government annuities.
F. A. McGregor, registrar of combines investigation act.
C. W. Bolton, chief of statistical branch.
F. J. Plant, chief of labor intelligence branch.
Address of department: Ottawa, Ontario.

Alberta

Department of public works:
W. Smitten, commissioner of labor.
F. W. Hobson, chief boiler inspector.
H. M. Bishop, chief factory inspector.
G. P. Barker, chief theater inspector.
John T. Stirling, chief mine inspector.
Addresses of department: Edmonton.

Government employment bureau:
William Carnill, superintendent, Calgary.
W. J. Paterson, superintendent, Edmonton
A. R. Redshaw, superintendent, Lethbridge.
J. W. Wright, superintendent, Medicine Hat.
A. A. Colquohoun, superintendent, Drumheller.

Workmen's compensation board:
John T. Stirling, chairman.
Walter F. McNeill, commissioner.
James A. Kinney, commissioner.
Frederick D. Noble, secretary.
Address of board: Qu'Appelle Building, Edmonton.

[3] Publishes annual reports on labor and industrial statistics.

British Columbia

Department of labor:
A. M. Manson, minister, Victoria.
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister, Victoria.
Robert J. Stewart, chief factories inspector, Vancouver.
Employment service—
J. H. McVety, general superintendent, Vancouver.
Minimum wage [for females] board—
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister of labor, chairman.
Mrs. Helen G. MacGill.
Thos. Mathews.
Miss Mabel Agnes Cameron, secretary.
Hours of work and minimum wage [for males] board—
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister of labor, chairman.
F. V. Foster.
T. F. Paterson.
Address of board: Parliament Buildings, Victoria.
Workmen's compensation board:
E. S. H. Winn, K. C., chairman.
Parker Williams.
Hugh B. Gilmour.
F. W. Hinsdale, secretary.
Address of board: Board of Trade Building, Vancouver.

Manitoba

Bureau of labor:
W. R. Clubb, minister of public works.
Edward McGrath, secretary.
Arthur MacNamara, chief inspector
Fair wage board—
D. L. McLean, deputy minister of public works, chairman.
J. W. Morley.
E. Claydon.
Walter Owens.
C. J. Harding.
Minimum wage board—
Geo. N. Jackson, chairman.
Mrs. Edna M. Nash.
James Winning.
Address of bureau: 332 Parliament Building, Winnipeg.
Workmen's compensation board:
C. K. Newcombe, commissioner.
R. S. Ward.
G. E. Carpenter.
N. Fletcher, secretary.
Address of board: 166 Portage Avenue East, Winnipeg.

New Brunswick

Department of labor:
H. I. Taylor, minister.
Workmen's compensation board:
J. A. Sinclair, chairman.
F. C. Robinson.
J. L. Sugrue.
Address of board: Post Office Box 1422, St. John.
Inspection of factories:
John Kenney, St. John.

Nova Scotia

Department of public works and mines:
Hon. G. S. Harrington, minister.
Norman McKenzie, deputy minister.
Philip Ring, factory inspector.
Address of department: Halifax.

Workmen's compensation board:
V. J. Paton, K. C., chairman.
Fred W. Armstrong, vice chairman.
John T. Joy, commissioner.
Address of board: Halifax.

Employment service:
C. J. Cotter, superintendent men's division, Halifax.
Miss Elda E. Caldwell, superintendent women's division, Halifax.

Ontario

Department of labor:
Hon. Forbes Godfrey, minister.
James H. H. Ballantyne, deputy minister.
D. M. Medcalf, chief inspector of steam boilers.
James T. Burke, chief inspector of factories, shops, and office buildings.
J. M. Brown, chairman stationary and hoisting engineers' board.
Employment service—
H. C. Hudson, general superintendent, Ontario offices.
Address of department: Spadina House, Toronto.

Minimum wage board:
Dr. J. W. MacMillan, chairman.
H. G. Fester.
Mrs. Lydia Parsons.
Miss Margaret Stephens.
R. A. Stapells.
Address of board: Spadina House, Toronto.

Workmen's compensation board:
Victor A. Sinclair, K. C., chairman.
Henry J. Halford, vice chairman.
George A. Kingston, commissioner.
N. B. Wormith, secretary.
T. Norman Dean, statistician.
F. W. Graham, claims officer.
W. E. Struthers, medical officer.
D. E. Bell, medical officer.
J. M. Bremner, medical officer.
Address of board: Metropolitan Building, 44 Victoria Street, Toronto.

Quebec

Department of public works and labor:
Antonin Galipeault, K. C., minister, Quebec.
Louis Guyon, deputy minister, and chief inspector of industrial establishments and public buildings, 63 Notre Dame Street East, Montreal.
Alfred Robert, fair wages officer and deputy chief inspector. 63 Notre Dame Street East, Montreal.
Felix Marois, registrar of board of conciliation and arbitration, Parliament Buildings, Quebec.

Saskatchewan

Bureau of labor and industries:
Thomas M. Molloy, commissioner.
T. Withy, chief factory inspector.
E. Pierce, mine inspector.
Government employment branch—
G. E. Tomsett, general superintendent.
Address of bureau: Regina.

Minimum wage board:
John A. Mather, chairman, Saskatoon.
Mrs. Wm. Allen, Moose Jaw.
J. P. Keleher, Moose Jaw.
Mrs. F. M. Eddie, Regina.
J. K. R. Williams, Regina.
T. Withy, chief factory inspector, secretary, Regina.

CHILE

Ministry of Health, Social Welfare, and Labor (address, Santiago).

CHINA

[A department of labor is under consideration, but the organization has not progressed sufficiently at this time to give any details.]

COLOMBIA

Ministry of Public Works (address, Bogota).

COSTA RICA

Ministry of Public Works (address, San José).

CUBA

Secretariat of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor (address, Havana).
Immigration, land settlement, and labor sections.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Ministry of Social Welfare [4] (address, Valdstynska, 10, Prague, III).
Ministry of Public Works [5] (address, Presslova, 6, Prague-Smichov).

DENMARK

Social Ministry (address, Copenhagen):
Labor board—
25 Amaliegade, Copenhagen.
Labor and factory inspection department—
25 Amaliegade, Copenhagen.
Workmen's compensation board—
3 Kongens Nytorv, Copenhagen.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Department of Agriculture and Immigration (address, San Domingo).

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Department of Justice (address, Batavia, Java.):
Labor bureau.

ECUADOR

Ministry of Public Instruction (address, Quito)
Department of labor.

EGYPT

Ministry of Interior, Council of Arbitration (address, Cairo).

ESTHONIA

Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare (address, Reval).

FINLAND

Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Helsingfors).

FRANCE

Ministry of Labor and Hygiene (address, Rue de Grenelle, 127, Paris).

[4] Handles labor relations at large.
[5] Labor questions relating to workers in mines; legislation; insurance statistics.

GERMANY

Ministry of Labor (address, Scharnhorststrasse, 35, Berlin N. W., 40).

GREAT BRITAIN

Ministry of Labor (address, Montagu House, Whitehall, London, S. W., 1).

GREECE

Ministry of National Economy (address, Rue Valoalitou, 3, Athens).
Directorate of labor and social welfare.

GUATEMALA

Ministry of Public Works (address, Guatemala).

HAITI

Department of Public Works (address, Port au Prince).

HONDURAS

Ministry of the Interior (address, Tegucigalpa)

HUNGARY

Ministry of Social Welfare and Labor (address, Kyralyi Palota, Budapest).

INDIA

Department of Industries (address, Delhi).

IRISH FREE STATE

Department of Industry and Commerce (address Government Building, Dublin).

ITALY

Ministry of National Economy (Rome).

JAPAN

Bureau of Social Affairs (address, Tokyo).

LATVIA

Ministry of Public Welfare (address, Riga).

LITHUANIA

Ministry of Home Affairs (address, Kaunas).

LUXEMBURG

General Directorate of Agriculture, Industry, and Social Welfare (address, Arlon):
Division of commerce, industry, and labor.

MEXICO

Department of Industry, Commerce, and Labor (address, Mexico City).

NETHERLANDS

Ministry of Labor, Commerce, and Industry (address, Beznidenhout, The Hague)

NEW ZEALAND

Department of Labor (address, Wellington).

NICARAGUA

Minister of Public Works (address, Managua).

NORWAY

Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Viktoria terrasse, 11–13, Christiana).

PANAMA

Ministry of Public Works (address, Panama).

PARAGUAY

Ministry of the Interior (address, Asuncion).

PERSIA

Ministry of Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Works (address, Teheran).

PERU

Ministry of Public Works (address, Lima).

POLAND

Ministry of Labor and Social Assistance (address, Place Dombrowski, 1, Warsaw).

PORTUGUAL

Ministry of Labor (address, Lisbon).

RUMANIA

Ministry of Public Health, Labor, and Social Welfare (address, Strada Wilson, Bucharest).

SALVADOR

Ministry of the Interior, Industry, and Agriculture (address, San Salvador).

KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES

Ministry of Social Policy (address, Belgrade).

SIAM

Ministry of Commerce (address, Bangkok):
Board of commercial development (deals with labor matters).

SPAIN

Ministry of Labor, Commerce and Industry (address, Paseo de la Castellana, 3, Madrid).

SWEDEN

Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Mynttorget 2, Stockholm):
Labor and social welfare section.

SWITZERLAND

Federal Department of National Economy (address, Palais Federal, Berne):
Federal labor office.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Department of Labor (address, Pretoria).

URUGUAY

Ministry of Industry (address, Montevideo):
National labor office.

VENEZUELA

Ministry of Public Works (address, Caracas).

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR

Official—United States

ALABAMA.—Department of Education. *Civilian rehabilitation bulletin No. 2: The vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise. Birmingham [1925?]. 27 pp., illustrated.*

Data from this bulletin are published on page 184 of this issue.

CALIFORNIA.—Industrial Accident Commission. *Report, July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925. Sacramento, 1926. 35 pp.*

A brief review of this report is given on page 66 of this issue.

INDIANA.—Industrial Board. *Proceedings of State-wide Industrial Safety Conference, February 10, 1926. Indianapolis, 1926. 59 pp.*

The subjects covered in the conference included industrial safety in the mining, steel, and automobile industries, the accident problem from the workers' viewpoint, industrial accidents to women, and the importance of first aid.

LOUISIANA.—Department of Labor and Industrial Statistics. *Thirteenth biennial report, 1925–26. New Orleans, 1926. 237 pp.*

Some of the data are published on page 39 of this issue. The volume also contains an industrial directory of 100 pages.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Department of Public Welfare. Division of Housing and Town Planning. *Annual report for the year ending November 30, 1925. [Boston, 1926?] 15 pp. Public Document No. 103.*

The report shows that town planning is gaining ground in the State. At the close of the year, 77 towns and cities had active town planning boards, 4 had inactive boards, 15 were considering action in regard to establishing such boards, and only 7 manifested no interest in the matter. An important development is the growing realization that regional planning is the logical expansion of city and town planning, that a community can not plan satisfactorily for itself as an isolated unit, and that while retaining full political individuality, group action is essential.

NEW JERSEY.—Department of Labor. *Report, July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925. [Trenton, 1925?] 83 pp.*

Information from this report is given on pages 59 and 182 of this issue.

NEW YORK.—Department of Labor. *Special bulletin No. 140: Court decisions on workmen's compensation law, January–December, 1925—all subjects. 267 pp.*

—— Governor's Advisory Commission in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry, New York City. *Final recommendations, May 20, 1926. [New York] 1926. 13 pp.*

A résumé of this report appears on page 31 of this issue.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Commission to study conditions relating to blind persons in Pennsylvania. *Report, 1925. Harrisburg, 1925. 84 pp.*

—— Department of State and Finance. *Departmental statistics, 1925. Harrisburg, 1925. 323 pp.*

Among the Pennsylvania statistics of special interest to labor in this volume are industrial accidents, compensation agreements and awards, State workmen's insurance fund, occupations of coal miners, average hourly wage rates, activities of employment offices, rehabilitation cases, and vocational education. The latest year for which the above-listed data are reported is 1924.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industries. Labor Division. *Seventeenth annual report, 1925.* [*Columbia, 1926.*] *73 pp.*

Data from this report are given on page 182 of this issue.

TENNESSEE.—Department of Labor. Division of Workmen's Compensation. *Supreme court decisions covering Tennessee workmen's compensation law, 1919–1924.* [*Nashville, 1925?*]. *43 pp.*

This pamphlet presents in abridged form the decisions of the Supreme Court of Tennessee construing the State workmen's compensation act. The points are presented in brief, with paragraphs explanatory of the facts involved, giving in informal fashion the substance of the decisions rendered up to and including October 24, 1925.

WASHINGTON.—Department of Labor and Industries. *Compilation of insurance and medical aid acts administered by department of labor and industries. Olympia, 1926. 50 pp.*

UNITED STATES.—Congress. House. Committee on Immigration and Naturalization. *Admission of certain relatives. Hearings, January 7, 1926. Washington, 1926. 28 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— —— —— —— *Deportation of alien criminals, gunmen, narcotic dealers, defectives, etc. Hearings on H. R. 344, H. R. 3774, March 25, 26, April 13, 1926. Washington, 1926. 205 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— —— —— —— *Hearings: Admission of skilled agriculturists, December 17, 1925; Americans of oriental race born in Hawaii—proof of citizenship, December 18, 1925. Washington, 1926. 65 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— —— —— —— *Preferences within quotas. Hearings on proposals to modify section 6, immigration act of 1924, April 29, 1926. Washington, 1926. 13 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— —— —— Committee on Labor. *Convict labor. Hearings on H. R. 8653, March and April, 1926. Washington, 1926. v, 343 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— —— Senate. Committee on Immigration. *Admission of certain relatives. Hearing on S. 2245, March 18, 1926. Washington, 1926. 80 pp. (69th Cong., 1st sess.)*

—— Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Bulletin No. 401: Family allowances in foreign countries, by Mary T. Waggaman. Washington, 1926. vi, 192 pp.*

A digest of this bulletin was published in the May issue (p. 7).

—— —— —— *Bulletin No. 404: Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1925. Washington, 1926. iii, 212 pp.*

—— —— —— *Bulletin No. 411: Proceedings of the twelfth annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, held at Salt Lake City, Utah, August 13–15, 1925. Washington, 1926. x, 161 pp.*

—— —— Children's Bureau. *Publication No. 150: Children indentured by the Wisconsin State Public School. Washington, 1925. v, 132 pp.*

Contains a study, completed in 1923, of 827 children who had been indentured by the Wisconsin State Public School for the first time, in the five-year period 1913–1917. In 1924, partly as a result of this study, the State reorganized its method of caring for dependent children, reestablishing a juvenile department under the State board of control and devoting much effort to creating an intelligent, sympathetic interest on the part of the public as to the care dependent, delinquent, and neglected children should receive. The findings of the study, therefore, while of historic interest, can not be taken as indicating the present situation in regard to child care in Wisconsin.

UNITED STATES.—Department of Labor. Children's Bureau. *Publications. Washington, March 15, 1926. 38 pp.*

This list of publications includes all the bulletins, etc., published by the Children's Bureau since its establishment in 1912.

—— —— Employment Service. *Directory of public employment offices. Washington, May, 1926. 19 pp.*

—— —— Women's Bureau. *Bulletin No. 51: Women in Illinois industries—a study of hours and working conditions. Washington, 1926. v, 108 pp.; chart.*

Some data from this report will be found on page 48 of this issue.

—— Department of the Interior. Office of Indian Affairs. *Annual report for fiscal year ended June 30, 1925. Washington, 1925. vi, 56 pp.*

—— Treasury Department. Public Health Service. *Public health bulletin No. 157: Health hazards of brass founders, by Dr. John A. Turner and Dr. L. R. Thompson. Washington, 1926. viii, 75 pp.; illustrations and charts.*

A summary of the section of the bulletin dealing with the field investigations of health hazards in brass foundries is given on page 56 of this issue.

Official—Foreign Countries

AUSTRALIA (NEW SOUTH WALES).—Bureau of Statistics. *Official year book of New South Wales, 1924. Sydney, 1925. 795 pp. Graphs and diagrams.*

Besides the usual review of the history, government, and social, economic, and industrial development of New South Wales, contains information relating to wages, prices, rents, employment, and unemployment, arbitration, strikes and lockouts, and industrial accidents and diseases. Some of the data relating to wages in the State are given on page 42 of this issue.

—— Director General of Public Health. *Report for the year ended December 31, 1924. Section I–C, Industrial Hygiene. Sydney, 1926. pp. 51–100.*

This report contains the results of several studies of the effect of sandstone dust on the health of quarrymen, miners, and stonemasons and a report of the incidence of lead poisoning in motor car painters. The latter report is summarized on page 61 of this issue.

AUSTRALIA (WESTERN AUSTRALIA).—Registrar of Friendly Societies. *Report of proceedings for the 18 months ended June 30, 1925. Perth, 1925. 26 pp.*

A change in the close of the financial year from December to June accounts for the 18-month period covered by this report. On the whole, the societies show a gratifying increase in membership and funds. At the close of the year the membership was 21,350, the highest number yet reached, and the total capital was £378,753 (pound at par=$4.8665). The payments for sick and funeral benefits totaled £59,349, medical benefits £34,539, and expenses for management, £32,456.

BELGIUM.—Ministère de l'Industrie, du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. Direction Générale de l'Assurance et de la Prévoyance sociales. *Rapport sur la réparation des dommages résultant des accidents du travail pendant les années 1921–1922–1923. Brussels, 1925. 187 pp.*

The report of the Belgian Office of Insurance and Social Welfare for the years 1921 to 1923 gives a résumé of the workmen's compensation legislation and of the development of insurance against industrial accidents. The second part of the report consists of tables showing the results of the operation of the insurance funds and the appendixes contain the texts of recent decrees and a list of the insurance societies approved by the Government.

CANADA.—Department of Labor. *Fifteenth annual report on labor organization in Canada (for the calendar year 1925). Ottawa, 1926. 272 pp.*

Among the many subjects discussed in this volume are: International, noninternational, and independent labor organizations, the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, the national and catholic unions, the One Big Union, revolutionary labor organizations, the Industrial Workers of the World, labor in politics, the labor press and nontrade-union organizations. Some statistics on trade-union membership in the Dominion, taken from this report are published on page 88 of this issue.

—— (ONTARIO).—Workmen's Compensation Board. *Report for 1925. Toronto, 1926. 70 pp.*

Certain data from this report are given on page 67 of this issue.

DENMARK.—Statistiske Department. *Statistiske Meddelelser, 4 Raekke, 74 Bind, 2 Haefte: Arbejdsløsheden i aarene 1920–1924. Copenhagen, 1926. 88 pp.*

A bulletin of the Danish Statistical Office showing the extent of unemployment in Denmark during the years 1920–1924.

—— (COPENHAGEN).—Statistiske Kontor. *Statistisk Aarbog for København, Frederiksberg og Gjentofte Kommune, 1925. Copenhagen, 1926. xvi, 174 pp., map.*

The seventh issue of the statistical yearbook of the cities of Copenhagen, Frederiksberg, and of the commune Gjentofte covering the year 1925 and preceding years. Of interest to labor are the tables relating to the occupational census, emigration, housing, industrial establishments and their workers, wholesale and retail prices, cost of living, social insurance, employment offices, wages, trade-unions, apprenticeship, trade schools, and consumers' cooperative societies.

FINLAND.—Socialministeriet. *Årsberättelser, serie B, VIII: Yrkesinspektionen, år 1924. Helsingfors, 1925.* [*Various paging.*] *Illustrated.*

—— [—— Statistiska Centralbyrån?] *Sociala specialundersökningar V: Levnadskostnaderna under bokföringsperioden 1920–21. Helsingfors, 1925.* [*Various paging.*] *Finlands officiella statistik XXXII.*

GREAT BRITAIN.—Board of Trade. Statistical Department. *Statistical abstract for the United Kingdom for each of the 15 years from 1910 to 1924. London, 1926. ix, 295 pp.* [*Cmd. 2620.*]

—— Industrial Court. *Decisions 1004 to 1168, January 1, 1925, to December 31, 1925. Vol. VII. London, 1926. xxviii, 346 pp.*

—— Mines Department. Miners' Welfare Fund. *Fourth report of the committee appointed by the Board of Trade to allocate the fund, 1925. London, 1926. 66 pp., illustrated.*

—— Ministry of Labor. *Report on an inquiry into the personal circumstances and industrial history of 3,331 boys and 2,701 girls registered for employment at employment exchanges and juvenile employment bureaus, June and July, 1925. London, 1926. 80 pp.*

Data from this report beginning on page 53 were taken from the Ministry of Labor Gazette for May, 1926.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR CONFERENCE.—*Eighth session, Geneva, May, 1926. Report on simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship. Geneva, 1926. 94 pp.*

—— *Ninth session, Geneva, June, 1926. Report I: Report on international codification of the rules relating to seamen's articles of agreement. Geneva, 1926. 255 pp. (First item on the agenda.)*

—— —— *Report II: Report on general principles for the inspection of the conditions of work of seamen. Geneva, 1926. 116 pp. (Item II on the agenda.)*

INTERNATIONAL LABOR OFFICE.—*Legislative series, Vol. IV, 1923. Geneva [1926?].* [*Various paging.*]

The legislative series is an annual collection of the most important laws and regulations affecting labor adopted in different countries (not including the United States).

INTERNATIONAL LABOR OFFICE.—*Studies and reports, Series C (employment and unemployment), No. 11: Stabilization of employment in the United States, by J. R. Bellerby. Geneva, 1926. xii, 112 pp.*

A brief review of the above study appears on page 101 of this issue.

JAPAN.—Department of Commerce and Industry. Bureau of Statistics. *The statistics of the Department of Commerce and Industry, 1924. [Tokyo] March, 1926. 135 pp.*

This yearbook contains statistics for 1924 of manufacturing and mining industries in Japan, showing number of workers, production, value of goods produced, and number of business companies and their capitalization.

NORTHERN IRELAND.—Ministry of Labor. *Directory of principal organizations of employers and workpeople, trade boards and local employment committees in northern Ireland. Belfast, 1926. 95 pp.*

SWEDEN.—[Socialdepartementet.] Pensionsstyrelsen. *Allmänna pensionsförsäkringen, år 1924. Stockholm, 1926. 28 pp.*

——— Socialstyrelsen. *Arbets- och löneförhållandena för affärsanställda i Sverige. Stockholm, 1925. 161 pp.*

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.—Department of Labor. *Cost of living committee. Report, 1925. Cape Town, 1925. 55 pp., chart.*

A brief review of this report is given on page 152 of this issue.

Unofficial

ALL-INDIA TRADE-UNION CONGRESS. *Report of the sixth session and congress constitution. Bombay, 1926. 86 pp.*

This report is reviewed briefly on page 88 of this issue.

AMERICAN MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION. *Annual convention series No. 34: Credit unions—their operation and value. New York, 20 Vesey Street, 1926. 16 pp.*

ARBEITGEBER-VERBAND UNTERELBE UND ARBEITGEBER-VERBAND HAMBURG-ALTONA, E. V. *Jahresbericht für das Geschäftsjahr 1925. Hamburg, [1926]. 51 pp.*

The annual joint report for the year 1925 of the two German employers' associations, Unterelbe and Hamburg-Altona. It discusses the wage policy of the association, hours of labor, social policies, the burdens of social insurance, employment exchanges, unemployment relief, labor disputes, employment of persons injured in the war, labor legislation, conciliation and arbitration, strike insurance, shutdowns, and the movement of wage rates.

AUSTIN, BERTRAM, AND LLOYD, W. FRANCIS. *The Secret of High Wages. London, T. Fisher Unwin (Ltd.), 1926. 111 pp.*

A summary of this volume appears on page 40 of this issue.

BARRAUD, MARCEL. *Les Chambres de Métiers en France. Paris, Librairie Générale de droit et de Jurisprudence, 1925. 429 pp.*

An account is given in this volume of the attempts which have been made in France to meet the shortage of skilled labor resulting from the losses in man power in the war and the decay of the apprenticeship system. The writer describes the two systems of organizing bureaus for vocational guidance and establishing apprenticeship courses—one of which is in force in Alsace-Lorraine, where the trade councils rest upon the principle of German legislation and have a definite legal status, and the other in other parts of France, where the organization of these offices is left to private initiative.

BURTON, ERNEST RICHMOND. *Employee representation. Baltimore, Williams & Wilkins Co., 1926. 283 pp.*

A study of the history, motives, methods, and objects of employee representation in American industry, with an attempt to evaluate its accomplishments. Discusses trade-union criticisms of employee representation plans.

CLARK, JOHN MAURICE. *Social Control of Business. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1926. xviii, 483 pp.*

CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL INSURANCE, LONDON, 1925. *Social insurance in its National and International Aspects and in Relation to the work of the International Labor Organization of the League of Nations. The report of a conference organized by the League of Nations Union and held at the London School of Economics, November 23–26, 1925. London, Faber & Gwyer, 1926. 248 pp.*

EDWARDS, NESS. *The History of the South Wales Miners. London, Labor Publishing Co. (Ltd.), 1926. v, 122 pp.*

Gives a brief account of the growth of trade-union organizations among the miners of South Wales down to the close of 1893.

FEDERATION OF BRITISH INDUSTRIES. *Report on visit to the United States of America, by F. Vernon Willey and Guy Locock. London, 39 St. James's Street, S. W. 1 [1925?] 12 pp.*

This report is briefly summarized on page 40 of this issue.

GURNEY-CHAMPION, F. C. G. *Justice and the Poor of England. London, George Routledge & Sons (Ltd.), 1926. x, 245 pp.*

HAMILTON, W. I., and KIDNER, T. B. *Advising the Tuberculous about Employment. Baltimore, The Williams & Wilkins Co., 1926. ix, 171 pp.*

This book represents the experience of the authors for many years in personnel and rehabilitation work. The conditions which the arrested tuberculous may expect to find upon a return to employment are described and the factors to be considered in placing these workers in occupations which it will be safe for them to follow are discussed. Includes also a chapter covering the conditions met in occupations which would prove particularly hazardous. The various agencies cooperating in work for the tuberculous are listed, such as the Veterans' Bureau, State associations and departments of rehabilitation, insurance companies, colonies and village settlements, and special workshops.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT PREVENTION ASSOCIATIONS. *Report of the safety convention and annual general meetings of the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations, held at Toronto, May 12 and 13, 1925. [Toronto, 1925?] 135 pp.*

The proceedings of the annual Canadian safety congress held in May, 1925. The subjects on the program included industrial safety, management's responsibility for safeguarding the workmen, permanent disabilities, and safety devices for woodworking machinery and power presses.

KIRKPATRICK, CLIFFORD. *Intelligence and Immigration. Baltimore, The Williams & Wilkins Co., 1926. xiv, 127 pp. Mental Measurement Monographs, Serial No. 2.*

A study of the effect of immigration upon the mental capacity of the American people, with discussion of the implications of the findings upon the American immigration policy.

LABOR YEAR BOOK, 1926. *London, Labor Publications Department [1926?]. [Various paging.]*

This, the fifth labor yearbook which has been issued under the joint auspices of the Trades Union Congress and the Labor Party, gives a review of the work during 1924 of these two bodies and their affiliated societies, and includes a brief survey of the activities of Parliament and the local governing bodies, the work of the cooperative movement, and the trend of international and interdominion affairs during the year. There is also a comprehensive directory of the trade-unions and associated organizations, both in Great Britain and abroad. The scope of the work is indicated by the following list of subjects treated: The British labor movement; labor in industry; capital, profits, banking and currency; trade and industry; labor in Parliament; central Government finance; general social services; land and agriculture; the cooperative movement; education; municipal socialism; international affairs; international labor; statistical tables; and directories, British and international.

LAPP, JOHN A. *Practical Social Science: A laboratory textbook. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1926. ix, 371 pp., charts.*

This brings together in condensed form the more essential materials of the Census Bureau and other statistical and research agencies dealing with social data.

MYERS, CHARLES S. *Industrial Psychology in Great Britain. London, Jonathan Cape (Ltd.), 1926. 164 pp.; illustrations and charts.*

The subjects covered in this work are industrial fatigue, movement study, and vocational guidance and selection. An account is also given of the organization and work of the Industrial Fatigue Research Board and the National Institute of Industrial Psychology.

NATIONAL METAL TRADES ASSOCIATION. Committee on Industrial Relations. *Experience with group insurance. Chicago, 122 South Michigan Avenue, 1926. 26 pp.*

This report is summarized on page 64 of this issue.

PHELAN, E. J. *The International Labor Organization—Its ideals and results. New York, 6 East Thirty-ninth Street, 1925. 15 pp.*

This is a brief résumé of the reasons for the creation of the International Labor Organization, its membership, and the work accomplished through the various sessions of the International Labor Conference.

POISSON, ERNEST. *The Cooperative Republic. (Translated by W. P. Watkins.) Manchester, England, The Cooperative Union (Ltd.), 1925. xvii, 226 pp.*

A review of this book is given on page 82 of this issue.

POWELL, J. E. *Payment by results. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1924. viii, 411 pp.*

As set forth in the preface, "The object of the author in writing this book is to indicate those steps which are necessary to correct the weaknesses by which production can be affected and to avoid the numerous pitfalls which seem to beset the introduction of payment by results."

RENARD, GEORGES. *Les Travailleurs du Livre et du Journal. Paris, Gaston Doin et Cie., 1926. xiv, 303 pp.*

This volume deals with the social and economic conditions of manual and intellectual workers engaged in the publication and preparation of books and newspapers in France and includes an account of the trade-union organization of the ordinary workers and also the associations among writers and journalists.

RUSSIAN INFORMATION BUREAU [WASHINGTON, D. C.]. *Commercial Handbook of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Washington, 1926. 40 pp.*

SIMON, HELENE. *Landwirtschaftliche Kinderarbeit. Berlin, F. A. Herbig, [1925]. ix, 379 pp.*

An analysis of the results of two national inquiries into child labor in German agriculture. The first of these inquiries, which dealt with the employment of school children in agriculture for wages, was made by the Government on November 15, 1904. The second inquiry, made in 1922 by means of questionnaires, by the German Society for the Protection of Children, covered all employment of children in agriculture and its subsidiary industries. The analysis shows the extent of child labor in agriculture, the reasons for the employment of child labor, its advantages and dangers, and also gives the existing legal regulations.

SOCIÉTÉ POUR L'ÉTUDE PRATIQUE DE LA PARTICIPATION DU PERSONNEL DANS LES BÉNÉFICES. *Bulletin de la participation aux bénéfices, 1925. Paris, 1925. 200 pp.*

The proceedings of the forty-seventh general assembly of the French Society for the Study of Profit Sharing and of the meetings of the administrative council held during 1925.

THE CHICAGO DAILY NEWS. *Almanac and yearbook for 1926, edited by James Langland. Chicago, The Chicago Daily News Co., 1926. lxiv, 1022 pp., illus.*

ZENTRALVERBAND DER HOTEL-RESTAURANT-UND CAFÉ-ANGESTELLTEN. *Bericht der Hauptverwaltung, 1925. Berlin, 1926. 104 pp.*

The annual report for the year 1925 of the German Central Federation of Hotel, Restaurant, and Café Employees on its activities and financial condition.

ZENTRALVERBAND DEUTSCHER KONSUMVEREINE. *Jahrbuch, 1926. Erster Band. Hamburg, 1926. xvi, 668 pp.*

Contains detailed data on the societies affiliated with the Central Union of German Consumers' Cooperative Societies, the German Wholesale Society (the "G. E. G."), the German Cooperative Publishing Society, the Mutual Insurance Society, etc. Data for the Central Union and the Wholesale Society are given on page 85 of this issue.